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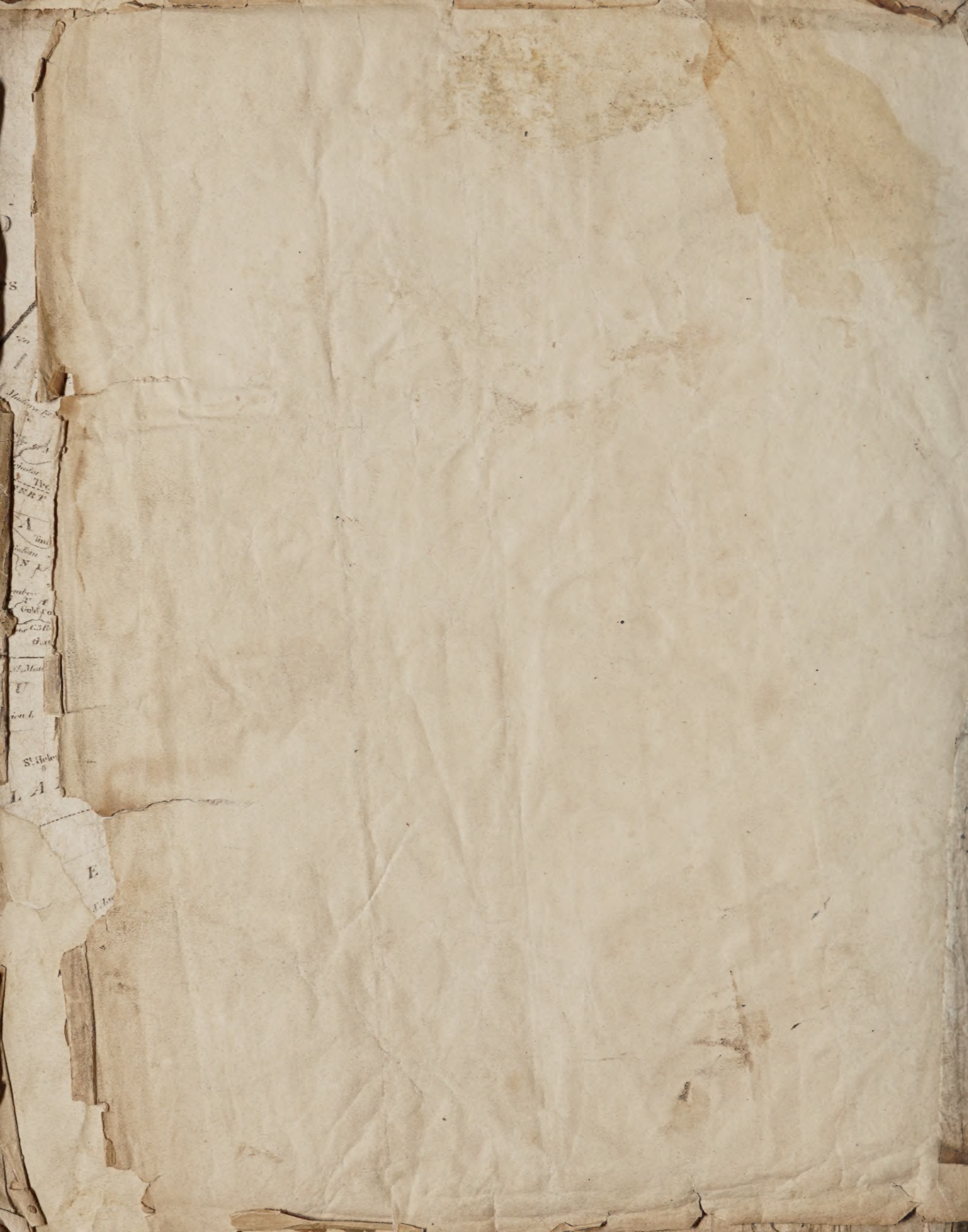
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Compendium James A. Henfis
NEW AND COMPREHENSIVE SYSTEM
OF
James UNIVERSAL *Henfis*
GEOGRAPHY. *Compendium*

Being a general and complete Description of the several
April 9th 1824
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Compendium
Empires, Kingdoms, States, and Colonies,
IN
EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA;
WITH THE
OCEANS, SEAS, AND ISLANDS,
IN EVERY PART OF
THE WORLD.

CONTAINING

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| I. The Newtonian System of the Universe, together with the latest Observations relative to the Earth, considered as a Planet, with useful Geographical Definitions and Problems. | III. Their Climate, Soil, Natural History, Productions, Curiosities, Seas, Rivers, Lakes, &c. &c. |
| II. The Origin and History of Nations, their Forms of Government, Religion, Population, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Military Strength, Orders of Knighthood, &c. | IV. The Manners, Customs, Amusements, Persons, and Habits of the People; their Language, Learning, Manufactures, and Commerce. |
| | V. The chief Cities, Towns, Edifices, Ruins, &c. &c. |
| | VI. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Distances of the principal Places from London. |

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

A COPIOUS GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX,

ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED;

Tables of the Coins of different Nations, with their Value in English Money; and a Chronology of all the Remarkable Events from the Creation of the World to the present Time.

THE WHOLE DIGESTED UPON A SYSTEMATIC PLAN, FROM THE LATEST AND BEST AUTHORITIES,

With Notes, Historical, Critical, and Explanatory.

BY HENRY MOORE, D.D.

ILLUSTRATED BY

A Complete Atlas,

AND

EMBELLISHED WITH NUMEROUS ENGRAVINGS.

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G H O G R A P H Y

James Campbell

Malcolm Gray
Loan

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE Age in which we live has been emphatically styled the "Golden Age of Knowledge and Literature;" and, indeed, if we take a cursory survey of the last fifty years, we shall find, that in no former period of similar duration have the arts, whether of utility or ornament, or the progress of natural and moral philosophy, made such rapid strides towards perfection. If we look to the different ranks of society, we shall perceive that, to a certain extent, learning has become a kind of mental aliment, and that, without a tolerable share of knowledge, no man can appear to any advantage, or support a common station in life.

"If to enlighten and expand the human mind," says an elegant modern author, "to remove the shades of ignorance, and to open fresh avenues of knowledge, be the chief ends of Science, no branch of it embraces a wider circle, and offers a more extensive combination of those desirable objects, than GEOGRAPHY. To be well acquainted with the general divisions of land and water; the subdivisions of empires, kingdoms, and states; the names of places, and their respective situations, is a branch of knowledge which it is impossible to want without the self-conviction of the grossest ignorance and inattention. In short, it is the science of life and manners, of laws and government; and it is as useful to the man as it is ornamental to the scholar." The great art, therefore, in compiling a new System of Geography, is, to adapt it to the present exalted state of literature and science, and to render it at the same time comprehensible to such readers as have not had the advantage of a regular and scientific study.

To ascertain what extensive discoveries have been made in distant regions, and to shew the necessity of a New System of Geography, we need only refer to the important publications which have within these few years been disseminated. A new light has been thrown on the eastern countries, by the embassies to Tibet, Ava, and China. The Asiatic Society have also greatly contributed to

illustrate the present condition of Hindostan ; while the African Society, aided by the researches of Messrs. Park, Barrow, Brown, Golberry, and the recently published Travels of Lord Valentia, have considerably enlarged our previously imperfect knowledge of Africa ; and the vast interior of Northern America has been admirably disclosed by the modern Travels of Hearne, Mackenzie, and Weld. The discoveries in the Pacific Ocean have now been so correctly certified, that they admit of a regular arrangement in new books of Geography ; while the exertions of La Perouse and Vancouver, and the recent voyage of Turnbull, together with the establishments of the Missionary Society, have greatly improved the science of Geography in this interesting portion of the Globe.

In Europe, too, such important events have lately occurred, and so many new kingdoms have sprung up on the ruins of the old governments, that those who wish to ascertain its present state can obtain no correct information from books which are not brought down even to the present year.

By availing himself, therefore, of these sources of information, and by bringing this Work down to the latest period of time, the Author trusts he shall be enabled to present a complete, uniform, and comprehensive System of Modern Geography, replete with interesting matter, and not unworthy of comparison with the most elaborate and expensive editions in the English language.

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INTRODUCTION.

INTRODUCTION.

ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

PART I.

COMPREHENDING A SHORT OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY OF ASTRONOMY, AND OF THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE; WITH AN ACCOUNT OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM, COMPREHENDING THE FIGURE AND MOTION OF THE DIFFERENT PLANETS, COMETS, FIXED STARS, &c.

AS it is essentially necessary, in order to obtain an accurate knowledge of the science of Geography, to have some acquaintance with that of Astronomy, it will be proper that we begin our work with an outline of the system of the world, and the order and revolutions of the heavenly bodies.

The Chaldees and Egyptians were the first who made any proficiency in this science; but they had but very confused notions relative to the figure of the earth, which they considered to be an extensive plain of great thickness, beneath which was the abode of the spirits of the dead. The firmament, decorated by the sun, moon, and stars, which appeared to move daily from east to west, was imagined to be at no great distance, and to be only designed for its use and ornament. More attentive observation, however, soon convinced several of the early Greek philosophers of the absurdity of these notions. Thales the Milesian, who lived 600 years before Christ, after travelling many years in Egypt, returned to his native place, and opened a school, where he taught astronomy, having made a sufficient progress in the science to enable him to calculate eclipses. Among his disciples were Anaximander, Anaximenes, and Pythagoras, all of whom seemed to have formed tolerably accurate notions of the solar system, but they differed as to the figure of the earth; Anaximander conceiving it to be cylindrical, while the latter were of opinion it was round. Pythagoras, we have reason to believe, was the first who conceived that the earth and the other planets were in motion, while the sun remained at rest. But this idea was so extremely opposite to the prejudices of the times, that it met with great opposition; and his disciple, Anaxagoras, who boldly affirmed his belief in this system, and that the sun was a mass of burning matter, from which the other heavenly bodies derived light and heat (a doctrine so contrary to the superstitious notions of the Athenians, which ascribed divinity to those luminaries), was charged with atheism, and condemned to death. A fear of similar punishment prevented the diffusion of these opinions; and the philosophers of antiquity, despairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reason, endeavoured in some measure to reconcile them. Ptolemy, an Egyptian, who flourished 138 years before Christ, supposed that the earth was fixed immoveably in the centre of the universe, and that the planets were placed

near to it. Above them he placed the firmament of fixed stars, then the crystalline orbs, then the *primum mobile*, and, last of all, the *cælum empyreum*, or heaven of heavens; all which he imagined to move round the earth once in twenty-four hours, and also to perform other revolutions round it, in certain stated and periodical times. To account for these motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles, called eccentrics and epicycles, crossing and interfering with each other. This system was universally maintained from the time of Ptolemy to the beginning of the 16th century; when the voyage of Magellan, who circumnavigated the globe between the years 1519 and 1522, demonstrated the form of the earth to be globular, beyond the possibility of a doubt. This discovery, with other circumstances, induced Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, to adopt the Pythagorean, or true system of the universe, which he published to the world in the year 1543. This doctrine had remained so long in obscurity, that the restorer of it was considered as the inventor, and the system obtained the name of the Copernican philosophy, though only revived by that great philosopher. But, as Europe was still immersed in ignorance, Copernicus had many opponents; in particular, Tycho Brahe, a Dane, who, sensible of the defects of the Ptolemaic system, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about the year 1586, to establish a system of his own, which was still more perplexed and embarrassed than that of Ptolemy. He allowed a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and made the sun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The sun, however, with all the planets, he supposed to be whirled round the earth in a year. This system, notwithstanding its absurdity, for a time met with many advocates.

But the dawn of learning and taste, which, after a darkness of many ages, now began to appear in Europe, induced learned men in different countries to cultivate astronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, in 1610, introduced the use of telescopes, which afforded new arguments in support of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The bigotry of the clergy, however, had almost stifled the science in its infancy; and Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican system, as a heresy. The

The reformation in religion, however, placed a great part of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the Scriptures were not given for explaining systems of natural philosophy, but for a much nobler purpose—to render us just, virtuous, and humane. From this time, therefore, great discoveries were made in all the branches of astronomy: not only the motions of the heavenly bodies were clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was discovered and illustrated by the immortal Newton, whose opinions have been incontrovertibly established by the subsequent discoveries of modern astronomers.

THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

In the solar system of Copernicus, as confirmed and demonstrated from geometrical principles by the illustrious Sir Isaac Newton, the sun (a huge globe, supposed of fire, 957,942 miles in diameter, and consequently nearly a million of times larger than the earth) is placed in the centre; and is supposed to be intended to give light, heat, and vegetation, to eleven primary, and eighteen secondary worlds. By spots on its disk, the sun is discovered to turn on its axis in 25 days, 14 hours, or about 3318 miles every hour.

The eleven primary orbs that perform their revolutions round the sun without regarding any other body, are called *planets*, or wanderers. Their names, beginning with the nearest to the sun, are MERCURY, VENUS, the EARTH, MARS, CERES, PALLAS, JUNO, VESTA, JUPITER, SATURN, and GEORGIUM SIDUS. All these revolve round the sun, from west to east, in different periods of time, and at different distances. Four of them, namely, the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, are attended by other bodies, called *satellites*, or *moons*; of which the Earth has one, Jupiter four, Saturn seven, and the Georgium Sidus six. These satellites constantly accompany the planets in their course round the sun, and in the mean time perform revolutions of their own round their respective primaries. Of these, however, we shall treat more particularly when we come to a description of the several planets to which they belong.

The path which a planet describes in its circuit round the sun is called its *orbit*, which is not exactly circular, but in the form of what is termed an *ellipse*, an oval figure; longer than it is broad. Besides this periodical circulation, each of the planets turns round on its own *axis*, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre, and terminating in the points called the *poles*. To this latter motion the planet is indebted for the alternate change of day and night, the sun illuminating those parts that are successively turned towards it. This double motion of the heavenly bodies may be compared to that of the wheels of a coach turning round in a large circle, in which we observe the wheels to turn round their own axes at the same time that they move round the circle.

The planets are retained in their orbits by the influence of two powers: one, called the *centrifugal force*, is that impulse which each planet received at its crea-

tion, and by which it endeavours to persevere in a straight line; but this being counteracted by the *centripetal force*, or power of attraction, by which it is drawn towards the sun as the centre of gravity, the planet is impelled, by the conjoined influence of both, in an elliptical orbit round the sun.

The sun's place is not exactly in the centre of the ellipse, but in one of the *foci*. To understand this, it may be necessary to describe a little more particularly the nature of an ellipse; which is a circular figure drawn round two centres, or foci, and may be illustrated by the following method. Having fixed two pins on a plane at a little distance from each other, put a piece of thread doubled, with the ends tied together, over the pins: let the length of it, however, when doubled, exceed the distance of the pins; and then, having inserted a pen within the doubling of the thread, carry it round the pins at the full stretch of the thread; by which means an oval figure will be described, called an ellipse. The two points where the pins are fixed are termed the *foci*; and the nearer these are to each other, the nearer will the figure described approach to a circle. The distance between either focus and the real centre is called the *eccentricity* of the ellipse, which in the orbits of some of the planets is very small; and, consequently, they are nearly circles: in that of the Earth, the eccentricity is only 17 of such parts as the mean distance consists of 1000. A line drawn through both foci, and terminating with the orbit at each end, is called the *line of the apsides*, the extremity of which farthest from the sun is denominated the higher apsis, or *aphelion* of the planet's orbit; and the opposite point, nearest to the sun, its lower apsis, or *perihelion*. The mean distance is between the greatest and the least, or half the sum of both added together.

The motion of a planet in its elliptical orbit is not at all times equable, but sometimes faster and sometimes slower; yet it is regulated by an immutable law, from which it never deviates; which is, that a line, or ray, drawn from the centre of the sun to the centre of the planet sweeps equal areas in equal times: consequently, the farther the planet is from the sun, the slower is its motion in its orbit, and *vice versa*. Hence our Earth is eight days longer in performing its circuit from the vernal to the autumnal equinox, than from the autumnal to the vernal; because, in the former case, it has not only a greater space to travel through, but its motion is so much the slower: nevertheless the sun appears to move through one half of the ecliptic in both instances.

This leads us also to observe the wonderful harmony and coincidence between the distances of the different planets and the periods of their revolutions, which we find adjusted by an invariable rule; *viz.* that the squares of the periodical times are in all of them proportional to the cubes of their mean distances from the sun. The same law is also established with respect to the secondaries revolving round their primaries.

As the rotation of each planet on its own axis, as already observed, is the cause of the alternate change of day and night to that planet; so its periodical revolution round the sun occasions the diversity of seasons, to such of them at least as enjoy the benefit of that grateful vicissitude:

vicissitude: for this does not happen to those which maintain their axes parallel to the axes of their orbits, as is the case with Mars and Jupiter, and perhaps some of the rest, since the same parts of these planets are presented to the sun in every diurnal revolution, and therefore their days and nights are always of equal length. Our earth, however, has its axis declined $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from a parallelism with the axis of its orbit, thereby making an angle of only $66\frac{1}{2}$ deg. with the plane of its orbit. And thus, by keeping its axis always parallel with itself (that is, the poles of it constantly pointing to the same part of the heavens), it is evident, that, as in the one part of its orbit the northern hemisphere must be most presented to the sun, and the southern for the longest time averted, thereby producing summer to the inhabitants of the north, and winter to those of the south; so, in the opposite part of its orbit, the southern hemisphere will enjoy the greatest share of the sun's influence, and the northern the least, and then it will be summer with the inhabitants of the south, and winter with those of the north. At the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, the north and the south poles are equally turned toward the sun, which is then vertical to the equator, and there is equal day and night all over the world; and as this occurs twice during the earth's annual circuit round the sun, the inhabitants of that part have two summers in every year. The axes of several others of the planets are in like manner inclined, as will be perceived on perusing the following more particular description of the different planets.

MERCURY, the first planet in the order of the system, is about 3498 in miles diameter. He moves round the sun with the greatest velocity of any of the planets, in 88 of our days, at the rate of 110,680 miles every hour. He emits a bright white light; but the angle of his distance from the sun, as seen by us, is so small, that, unless by the telescope, we can seldom discern him; and when we do, it is for so short a time, and in twilight, that it is difficult to discover spots on his face. To this hour, therefore, we are uncertain of the length of his days and nights; yet it has been apprehended that he revolves on his axis in twenty-four hours and five minutes. We see him partially enlightened like the moon, sometimes like a small crescent, in other situations half enlightened, and sometimes gibbous, or oval, and are therefore certain he derives his light from the sun, as she does: so that, no doubt, he is a fellow world, with inhabitants adapted to the heat of his situation, which, in the cooler regions of the planet, is equal to the greatest heat of the earth; and, in their hottest climates, water would continually boil. In magnitude, he does not much exceed the moon. Our earth, viewed from Mercury, must appear much larger, and more luminous, than any of the planets, except Venus, appears to us.

VENUS is the next planet in the order of the system, and distinguished by her *superior brilliancy*, as the sun's light is twice as great to this planet as to the earth; from which cause she is sometimes visible to the naked eye in full day-light. She is about seventy millions of miles from the sun, or about twice the distance of Mercury; and, like him, but much longer and more

conspicuously, appears under the different phases of the moon. These, as we have said, are proofs that both planets borrow their light from the sun, and move round him. The orbits of these planets, as well as those of the rest of the system, are inclined to the orbit of the earth. Hence, when Venus and Mercury are found in the nodes of their orbits between the earth and sun, they are transferred upon the sun's face like small round black spots, and which, in fact, are partial eclipses of the sun: these are called the *transits* of Mercury or Venus. This planet is a little larger than the Earth, or 9360 miles in diameter; and moves round the sun in $224\frac{1}{2}$ of our days, at the rate of 80,955 miles every hour. From faint spots seen upon her surface, she revolves on her axis in 23 hours 21 minutes; and her surface is irregular, like that of the moon. Her atmosphere has been calculated to be fifty miles high: and the sun will appear to the inhabitants twice as large as to us. When Venus is to the west of the sun, she is a morning star; when to the east of him, an evening star: her orbit is included by the earth's; and, as both move the same way, she appears to be on one side of the sun longer than the two hundred and twenty-four days and a half she is in going round him. The axis of Venus is said, by some astronomers, to incline 75 degrees to the axis of her orbit; and, therefore, her seasons vary very fast, the sun passing over more of her from pole to pole in one day, than over the earth in a quarter of a year. Hence the heated places of this planet have time to cool; which suggests to our ideas, that provision has been made for the inhabitants, that they might not suffer by their vicinity to the sun: this circumstance also gives her two winters and two summers at her equator. With such provision, in a planet over a large part of which the heat does not exceed that of the earth, even ourselves, our animals, and vegetation, might subsist. The discovery lately made by Mr. Schroeter, of a light faintly extended beyond the bounds of direct solar illumination, when she has her falcated appearance, like the moon near to her change, strengthens this probability; as these are signs of twilight, and of an atmosphere. This astronomer has also observed her to have considerable mountains; another character of a globe suited for habitation.

The EARTH, the third planet in the order of the system, is 8,244 miles in diameter, 25,038 miles in circumference at the equator, and nearly 100,000,000 at its mean distance from the sun. It turns round its axis in 23 hours and 56 minutes, and moves in its orbit at the rate of 68,856 miles every hour, completing its revolution in 365 days 6 hours. It is attended in its course by an inferior planet, or satellite, denominated the *Moon*, which is 2183 miles in diameter, and moves, with respect to the earth, 2290 miles in her orbit every hour. Her mean distance from the earth is 240,000 miles; and her surface, when compared to it, is as 1 to $13\frac{1}{4}$, their respective quantities of matter being as 1 to 39. She goes round the earth; from change to change, in 29 days 12 hours and 44 minutes; and hence performs thirteen revolutions while our globe travels round the sun. During her rotation round the earth, she sometimes exhibits more and

sometimes less of the enlightened part of her body. Hence, when she is between the earth and the sun, her dark side is towards us, and we lose sight of her, and call this part of her period the *change*; but, as she revolves round the earth from west to east (the same way the earth turns on its axis), in a few days she appears above the sun in the west, and, exhibiting a small part of her enlightened face, she is the *horned*, or *new moon*. As she proceeds on her monthly journey, she soon appears as a half moon, and is then at the *first quarter*; as she approaches the *full*, more of her enlightened side may be seen, and she assumes an *oval* or *gibbous* appearance. At the *full*, she is opposite to the sun, when the inhabitants of the earth look at her in the same direction as the rays of that luminary, and of course see the whole of her enlightened face. In performing the other half of her journey, she wanes; and exposing less and less of her enlightened side, again disappears. As both the planets derive their light from the sun, it will evidently appear that the earth is a moon to the moon, from whence she must appear, on account of her size, a glorious luminary. The moon only moves on her axis once during her revolution round the earth: hence she always presents the same face to us, and her days are a month long; and as her axis is but very little inclined to the plane of her orbit, the inhabitants, if any, have no diversity of seasons. Her surface abounds with great inequalities; and hence she reflects a more chaste and agreeable light than if her surface were smooth. Her mountains have by some been calculated nine miles in height; but Dr. Herschel's telescopes, which magnify nearly 7000 times, have reduced her highest hills to about two miles. Her atmosphere is calculated to be only about one mile high. She shines without setting every second fortnight on the arctic or antarctic parts of our globe, during winter; a very sublime and simple provision for the otherwise long-continued darkness that at opposite seasons of the year would envelope the polar regions of the earth. If the moon moved in the same plane with the earth, there would be an eclipse every full and change; but as she travels five degrees and three quarters to the north of it, and the same to the south of it, every lunation, she only crosses the plane of the earth's orbit in two places, which points of intersection, called the moon's *nodes*, move $19\frac{3}{4}$ degrees towards the west every year, and therefore pass round the heavens in 18 years and 225 days; which is the golden number of our calendar. Hence, when one of these nodes is between the earth and the sun at the change, the moon's shadow is thrown on the earth, and she eclipses the sun; and if she comes to the full when either node is opposite to the sun, she falls into the earth's shadow, and loses for a short time her borrowed light; but, as she mostly passes above or below the earth's shadow, we have eclipses very seldom.

Mars is known in the heavens by his peculiarly red appearance, arising from a very thick and dense atmosphere. This planet is next above the earth, and hence has considerably less light from the sun than we have; is much smaller than the earth, or about 4470 miles in diameter. He is near 150 millions of miles from the

sun, and goes round him in something less than two of our years, moving at the rate of 55,783 miles every hour. His day and night is something longer than ours, or 24h. 39m. 22s. and uniform throughout his year. His axis being perpendicular, he has no variety of seasons. When we pass between the sun and him, he has a most fiery and alarming appearance, and is often mistaken for a comet; but when we are on the opposite side of our orbit, he appears small, and scarcely to be distinguished from a fixed star. The warmer regions of this planet, are of nearly the temperature of Russia. Its gross and thick atmosphere is supposed to supply the place of a moon.

The CERES, PALLAS, JUNO, and VESTA, are the new planets, all of which have been discovered since the beginning of the present century. They are all situated at nearly the same distance from the sun, between Mars and Jupiter, but are too small to be seen by the naked eye, and visible only by good telescopes. The CERES, which is the largest, was discovered January 1, 1801, by M. Piazzi, astronomer royal at Palermo in Sicily, who called it CERES FERDINANDEA, in honour of his sovereign. According to the latest observations, its annual revolution in its orbit is performed in 4 years and 222 days, at the distance of 250 millions of miles from the sun. Dr. Herschel has estimated its diameter at 160 English miles. The PALLAS was discovered in 1801, by Dr. Olbers, of Hamburg. Its distance from the sun is about 270 millions of miles; its diameter is estimated by Dr. Herschel at only 110 miles. The JUNO was discovered by Professor Harding, in 1804; and the VESTA, by Dr. Olbers, in 1807: they are not larger than the Pallas, and nearly the same distance from the sun. Their diameter has not been ascertained.

JUPITER, by far the largest of the planets, is nearly 1300 times bigger than the earth, and 93,333 miles in diameter. He is about 500 millions of miles from the sun, or five times the distance that we are; so that he enjoys but a 25th part of the light, heat, and attraction of that luminary, that we do. Though, indeed, of the light and heat he may still possess, we are not so certain as of the degree of attraction: that being invariably proportioned to the distance; while these will be relative to the density and other circumstances of the atmosphere, and the aptness of the surface of the planet to acquire and retain heat. After Venus, he appears the most brilliant planet of the universe. He is attended with four satellites, that revolve very regularly round him, some bigger and some less than the earth: the first, or innermost, performs its revolution in about 1 day 18½ hours, at the distance of $5\frac{1}{2}$ semi-diameters of Jupiter from its centre; the second in 3 days 18 hours, at 9 semi-diameters; the third, in 7 days 3 hours, at $14\frac{1}{2}$ semi-diameters; and the fourth, or outermost, in 16 days 18 hours, at 25 semi-diameters. The three first are eclipsed every revolution, and every seventh day come in conjunction with him and one another. Jupiter is near twelve years in making his way round the sun, although he moves at the rate of 30,193 miles every hour: he turns round his axis in about ten of our hours, so that his days and nights are but five hours each:

each: and he has no variety of seasons; for his axis is perpendicular to the plane of his orbit. Turning so swiftly on his axis, his figure becomes more oblate than that of the earth, being more than 6000 miles longer in diameter from one side of his equator to the other than from pole to pole, or in the proportion of 13 to 14. This swiftness of his diurnal motion also draws his clouds and vapours into streaks or lines over his equatorial parts, forming what are called Jupiter's *Belts*. An eclipse of the sun, by this great planet, would be a striking object, even to the unassisted sight, as viewed from one of his satellites.

SATURN, the next planet in the system, is 85,782 miles in diameter, or about 1000 times larger than the earth. His mean distance is about 916 millions of miles from the sun, round which he revolves in about 30 of our years. He moves in his orbit at the rate of 22,298 miles every hour, and upon his axis in 10 hours 16 minutes. By this swift revolution on his axis, his figure becomes oblate in the proportion of 11 to 10, and his atmosphere and vapours are drawn like a quintuple belt of three darker parts and two lighter upon his body. Saturn is attended by no less than seven satellites: the innermost revolves about him in about 22 of our hours, at the distance of $1\frac{1}{2}$ diameter of Saturn from his centre; the second, in 24 hours, at 3 diameters; the third, in 1 day 21 hours, at $4\frac{3}{4}$ diameters; the fourth, in 2 days 18 hours, at $5\frac{3}{4}$ diameters; the fifth, in 4 days, 12 hours, at 8 diameters; the sixth, in 16 days, at 8 diameters; and the seventh, in 79 days 8 hours, at 54 diameters: this last has been long known to have a period of apparent augmentation and diminution, and hence, probably, to have a revolution on its axis, and be composed of land and water. A large, broad, double, and luminous *ring*, of 200,157 miles diameter, surrounds Saturn, at a distance from the planet equal to the breadth of the ring. This ring inclines about 30 degrees to the plane of the ecliptic, and must appear like a great arch of light to the inhabitants of Saturn. It has a revolution every 11 hours on an axis perpendicular to its plane, and keeps parallel to itself at all times; hence it disappears twice every 30 years, when its edge is presented to us. The sun shines for near 15 of our years together on the northern plane of the ring; and then leaving it, illumines the southern side for the same period; so that there is but one day and one night on each side of the ring, but each will be of 15 years' continuance without intermission. The sun's direct light being but about a 90th part so strong to Saturn as to the earth, this ring is no doubt intended to increase it, by reflecting a very considerable portion upon the planet, which, added to that from his seven satellites, must render him a very interesting and probably comfortable abode for rational and brute inhabitants.

The GEORGIUM SIDUS, or rather HERSCHEL, so called from Dr. Herschel, its ingenious and indefatigable discoverer, makes the eleventh in the order of the system. Most of the other planets we have described have been known as such to the highest antiquity; but, from its extreme smallness, this had escaped ascertainment till the year 1781, although it had been recognised as a very minute star by several astronomers. It is near

twice Saturn's distance from the sun, and will be near 82 years and 6 months in going round him; is of a pale colour, and much larger in its telescopic appearance than the fixed stars, being 100 times as large as the earth, or 37,230 miles in diameter, and, on a clear evening, is visible to the naked eye. Six satellites attend this planet, some of which are said to move retrograde: the first, in 5 days 21 hours; the second, in 16 days 17 hours; the third, in 11 days; the fourth, in 13 days 11 hours; the fifth, in 38 days; and the sixth, in 107 days 16 hours. The exact motion of this planet on its axis, from its great distance, has not been ascertained.

We have thus presented our readers with an outline of each of the planets of the solar system; but, as familiarity is our chief intention in this introduction, it may be advantageous to exhibit the distance of each of them from the sun and one another, in the most simple and concise form, in the following manner:—If we calculate the distance of Mercury from the sun to be 4, Venus will be 7, the Earth 10, Mars 15, Jupiter 52, Saturn 95, and Georgium Sidus 190. Or, if a body projected from the sun should continue to fly at the rate of 480 miles per hour, which is about the swiftness of a cannon ball, it would reach Mercury in 9 years, Venus in 16 years, the Earth in 23 years, Mars in 34 years, Jupiter in 118 years, Saturn in 216 years, and the Georgium Sidus in 432 years.

COMETS.—Besides the planets already mentioned, there are other great bodies that sometimes visit our system, which are a species of temporary planets, for they come and abide with us for a while, and afterwards withdraw from us. These wandering bodies are called COMETS, and are supposed to be solid opaque bodies, of various magnitudes, with long transparent tails resembling a pale flame, and issuing from the part of the comet farthest from the sun. They move round the sun in very elliptic orbits, and cross the orbits of the planets in all directions. From the curved direction of their paths, Newton concludes, that when they disappear, they go much beyond the orbit of Jupiter; and that, in their perihelion, they frequently descend within the orbits of Mars and the inferior planets. The comet which appeared in 1680, approached to within 40,000 miles of the sun's surface; and Sir Isaac Newton computed its heat, when nearest the sun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron, and that it must retain its heat until it comes round again, even if its period should be more than 20,000 years, and it is calculated to be only 575.

The large comet of 1811 was visible to the different inhabitants of the earth for ten months, a longer period than has been reported of any other, from the earliest ages of antiquity. This comet, approaching from the southern regions, was first observed from the south of France, in March 1811; since which period it has passed through the solar system, or from the south side of it, through its node and the ecliptic, to the north side, and was seen in England early in the morning of August 26. On the 31st, in the evening, about eight o'clock, it appeared like an hazy light, of the size of Jupiter, near the middle and

on the back of Leo Minor: it was then approaching its perihelion, or nearest distance from the sun, to which it arrived on the 12th of September, and was then 117 millions of miles from him, after which the tail was at its greatest brilliance, and was probably near 30 millions of miles in length, and the centre of the *nucleus*, or head of the comet, about 400 miles in diameter. It never approached quite so near the sun as the earth does, and when nearest the earth was about 114 millions of miles distant. The *nucleus* varied in diameter, from one minute at first to four minutes, was most bright in the centre, and hazy at the edge; rays appeared frequently to emanate from it, and luminous matter to coruscate at intervals down the whole length of the tail, which was of a very singular appearance in the telescope; it seemed quite detached from the nucleus, and to bend round it like a hood, forming two luminous streams of light behind the comet, on each side, whilst immediately behind the nucleus was dark as the rest of the sky; in this interval, and through the rays were frequently seen small stars, whose light was totally undisturbed by its passage through them: On the 5th of September the tail was only one degree long; on the 11th, seven degrees; October 6, sixteen degrees; and on October 17, twenty degrees. After this it gradually diminished. Since that period, its approximation to the light of the sun, and its great diminution renders it probable it will be seen no more by this generation.

Whether the comets revolve round their orbits at stated times, or traverse our system without probability of return, has never yet been correctly ascertained; but, as new comets are continually appearing, there is reason to expect that in a proper period of time an accurate number of observations may decide the question. The velocity of such of these as approach nearest to the sun, particularly of the comet of 1680 (whose appearance was tremendous) exceeds any swiftness that falls within observation, except that of the rays of light, it being nearly 2000 times greater than the swiftness of a cannon ball at the instant of its discharge, yet scarcely a thousandth part of the velocity of light passing from the sun.

THE FIXED STARS.

If the preceding short description of the solar system be calculated to strike us with awe of that Being by whom it was formed, and by whose power the planets perform with such exactness their stated revolutions, how much more exalted must be our ideas when we contemplate the structure and magnificence of the heavens, in the number, magnitude, and distance of the fixed stars, which, on account of their apparently various magnitudes, have been distributed into several classes or orders. Those that appear the largest are called *stars of the first magnitude*; the next to them in lustre, *stars of the second magnitude*; and so on to the sixth, which are the smallest that are visible to the bare eye. This distribution having been made long before the invention of telescopes, the stars which cannot be seen without the assistance of those instruments are distinguished by the name of *telescopic stars*.

They are likewise distinguished, with regard to their situations, into *asterisms*, or *constellations*; which are nothing but assemblages of several neighbouring stars, considered as constituting some determinate figure, as of an animal, &c. from which it is therefore denominated.

The number of constellations in the northern hemisphere is 36; in the southern, 32; and in the ecliptic, 12. Those stars which are not included in the constellations, are called *unformed stars*; those clusters of stars which are so distant as not to be distinctly seen, are, from their cloudy appearance, comprised under the name of *nebulae*; and that light-coloured irregular circle, or band, which encompasses the heavens, and is distinguishable from the ethereal blue by its brilliancy—that shining zone, which owes its splendour to the innumerable stars of which it is formed, and which passes through many of the constellations in its ample range—is called the *galaxy*, the *via lactea*, or the *milky way*.

The idea of classing the stars under well-known forms probably originated with the Egyptian shepherds, who, during the silent watches of the night (as they slept in the open air), had no other objects to contemplate than those which the starry heavens presented; among these, assisted by the powers of a fertile imagination, they discovered a distant resemblance of such things as they were most familiar with. The shepherds thus conceiving the figures of things in the firmament, the poets embellished the illusion with the fictions of mythology, till the heavens were, as it were, filled with these imaginary creatures; and these were increased in after ages, and served astronomers in their accounts of the starry heavens, as the present divisions of the earth help geographers in the description of the globe.

The twelve constellations which surround the ecliptic, commonly called the twelve signs of the zodiac, are the following:—*Aries*, the Ram; *Taurus*, the Bull; *Gemini*, the Twins; *Cancer*, the Crab; *Leo*, the Lion; *Virgo*, the Virgin; *Libra*, the Balance; *Scorpio*, the Scorpion; *Sagittarius*, the Archer; *Capricornus*, the Goat; *Aquarius*, the Water-bearer; and *Pisces*, the Fishes; and they are noted on globes, &c. in the following manner:

<i>Aries.</i>	<i>Taurus.</i>	<i>Gemini.</i>	<i>Cancer.</i>	<i>Leo.</i>	<i>Virgo.</i>
♈	♉	♊	♋	♌	♍
<i>Libra.</i>	<i>Scorpio.</i>	<i>Sagittarius.</i>	<i>Capricornus.</i>	<i>Aquarius.</i>	<i>Pisces.</i>
♎	♏	♐	♑	♒	♓

The former six are called northern, and the latter southern signs; because the former possess that half of the ecliptic which lies to the northward of the equinoctial, and the latter that which lies to the southward. The northern are our summer signs, the southern our winter ones.

As these twelve signs answer to the twelve months in the year, it is a very probable conjecture, that the figures under which they are represented are descriptive of the seasons of the year, or months, in the sun's path. Thus, the first sign, Aries, denotes, that about the time the sun enters into that part of the ecliptic, the lambs begin to follow the sheep; that on the sun's approach to the second constellation, Taurus, the Bull, is about the

the time of the cows bringing forth their young. The third sign, now Gemini, was originally two kids, and signified the time of the goats bringing forth their young, which are usually two at a birth, while the former, the sheep and cow, commonly produce only one. The fourth sign, Cancer, the Crab, an animal that goes side-ways and backwards, was placed at the northern solstice, the point where the sun begins to return back again from the north to the southward. The fifth sign, Leo, the Lion, as being a very furious animal, was thought to denote the heat and fury of the burning sun, when he has left Cancer, and entered the next sign Leo. The succeeding constellation, the sixth in order, received the sun at the time of ripening corn and approaching harvest; which was aptly expressed by one of the female reapers, with an ear of corn in her hand, viz. Virgo, the Maid. The ancients gave to the next sign, Scorpio, two of the twelve divisions of the zodiac; autumn, which affords fruits in great abundance, affords the means and causes of diseases, and the succeeding time is the most unhealthy of the year, expressed by this venomous animal, here spreading out his long claws into one sign, as threatening mischief, and in the other brandishing his tail to denote the completion of it. The fall of the leaf was the season of the ancient hunting; for which reason the stars which marked the sun's place at this season, were formed into the constellation Sagittary, a huntsman with his arrows and his club, the weapons of destruction for the large creatures he pursued. The reason of the Wild Goat's being chosen to mark the southern solstice, when the sun has attained his extreme limit that way, and begins to return and mount again to the northward, is obvious enough; the character of that animal being, that it is mostly climbing, and ascending some mountain, as it browses. Yet there remain two signs of the zodiac to be considered with regard to their origin, viz. Aquarius and Pisces. As to the former, it is to be considered that the winter is a wet and uncomfortable season; this, therefore, was expressed by Aquarius, the figure of a man pouring water from an urn. The last of the zodiacal constellations was Pisces, a couple of fishes tied together, that had been caught; the lesson was, The severe season is over; your flocks do not yet yield their store, but the seas and rivers are open, and there you may take fish in abundance.

The common opinion as to the number of the stars is widely erroneous; for though, in a clear night, they appear to be innumerable (which arises from their strong sparkling, and our looking at them in a confused manner), yet, when the firmament is divided into constellations, the number that can at any time be seen with the naked eye is not more than a thousand. But their number, since the invention of telescopes, has been found to be incalculable; for the higher degree of perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars always appear to us. Dr. Herschel, to whose persevering ingenuity the astronomical world is so much indebted, in passing rapidly over the heavens with his new telescope, perceived about 44,000 stars in the space of a few degrees, which seemed to indicate that there were 75 millions in the heavens. But were it

even possible to count their number, what would it be, compared to those that fill the whole expanse, and occupy the boundless fields of æther? Indeed, the immensity of the universe must contain such numbers as would exceed the utmost stretch of the human imagination.

The distance of the fixed stars from our planet, and from each other, must be immense. For, notwithstanding the vast extent of the earth's orbit (at least 190 millions of miles in diameter) round the sun, the distance of a fixed star is not in the smallest degree affected by it; nor does it appear to be any nearer to us when the earth is in that part of its orbit nearest the star, than when it was at the most distant part of it. The star nearest us is the dog-star, or Sirius, which appears 27,000 times less than the sun: and, as the distance of all bodies must be greater in proportion as they seem less, mathematicians have computed the distance of Sirius from us to be two billions and 200,000 millions of miles. A ray of light, therefore, though its motion is about 12,000,000 of miles per minute, would take up more time in travelling from this star to us than we do in making a West India voyage. A sound, which, next to light, is the quickest body we are acquainted with, would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years; and a cannon ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The distances between the stars and the sun being so immense, they cannot possibly receive from him so strong a light as they seem to have, nor any brightness sufficient to make them visible to us; for the sun's rays must be so scattered and dissipated before they reach such remote objects, that they can never be transmitted back to our eyes so as to render those objects visible by reflection. The stars, therefore, shine with their own native lustre, as the sun does; and, since each is confined to a particular portion of space, it is evident that the stars are of the same nature with the sun.

How improbable then is the opinion, that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wisdom, and does nothing in vain, should create so many glorious suns, fit for so many important purposes, and place them at such distances from each other, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences? Hence then, instead of one sun and one world only in the universe, astronomy discovers to us such an inconceivable number of suns, systems, and worlds, dispersed through boundless space, that if our sun, with all the planets and moons belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more missed, by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of sand from the sea-shore; the space they occupy being so comparatively small, that, although the Georgium Sidus, the outermost of our planets, revolves about the sun in an orbit of 10,830 millions of miles in circumference, it would scarcely make a blank in the boundless universe. Were it possible that we could actually take our flight into infinite space, or be borne on the wings of lightning, to the most distant fixed star we can now see, even there, perhaps, we should find ourselves on the confines of
d creation,

creation, and see as many stars before us as we left behind: for space has neither top nor bottom in it; it is a circle, whose centre is every where, but whose circumference is no where! Even systems themselves may have revolutions round one another; and account for that difference of distance that we are constantly observing to arise amongst the fixed stars; for new stars appear, rise in magnitude, and then diminish and disappear, which would also be accounted for, by supposing that our Sun himself is in progressive motion towards the small star Beta Tauri, and carrying his system of worlds along with him. Stars of the *first* magnitude in Flamsteed's time dwindle into those of the *third* or *fourth* in our time. By analogy, we conclude, that at a proper distance our sun would dwindle into a fixed star among the rest, and his system of

worlds disappear. Now, as we see that almost every particle of our globe swarms with life and animals, we cannot suppose the other bodies of our system to be only intended as a faint spangle for mortals to gaze at: more especially as they are as well calculated for inhabitants as ours, revolving as regularly round the same sun, and seeming to have every other convenience for rational and brute inhabitants. But, to carry this idea into infinite space; to recognise suns and systems, above us, below us, to the east, the west, the north, and the south; to consider each sun as the centre of a system like ours, and every world inhabited!—In short, the astonished fancy turns round, and is entirely lost and sunk in the abyss of nature! Well might the Psalmist say, that “the heavens declare the glory of God, and the firmament sheweth his handy work.”

PART II.

THE DOCTRINE OF THE SPHERE;

WITH DIRECTIONS FOR USING THE NEWLY IMPROVED ARTIFICIAL OR ARMILLARY SPHERE.

IN the preceding pages, the earth has been merely considered as one of the planets; but we shall now proceed to the doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought ought always to precede that of the Globe, as we shall see in the next article. In treating this subject, we shall consider the earth as at rest, and the heavenly bodies as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any error, since we have previously explained the true system of the universe; from which it appears, that it is the *real* motion of the earth, which occasions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is, besides, attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our senses: for, since the distance of the earth from the sun is but a point, as it were, in comparison of the immense distance of the starry firmament, in whatever part of its orbit the earth is placed, there will be the same prospect of the heavens, the same position and magnitude of the stars, and figures of the constellations. The imagination, therefore, is not put on the stretch: the idea is easy and familiar; and, in delivering the elements of science, this object cannot be too much attended to.

The ancients observed, that all the stars apparently turned round the earth, from east to west, in twenty-four hours, and that the circles which they described in those revolutions were parallel to each other, but not of the same magnitude; those passing over the middle of the earth being the largest, while the rest diminished in proportion to their distance from it. They also observed, that there were two points in the heavens which always preserved the same situation, namely, the north and south, which they termed *Celestial Poles*, because the heavens seemed to turn round them. In

order to imitate these motions, they invented what is called the *ARTIFICIAL SPHERE*, through the centre of which they drew a wire, called an *Axis*, whose extremities were fixed to the immoveable points, called *Poles*. They farther observed, that, on the 20th of March and 23d of September, the circle described by the sun was at equal distance from both the poles. This circle, therefore, must divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator*, or *Equaller*. It was also called the *Equinoctial Line*, because the sun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having also observed, that, from the 21st of June to the 22d of December, the sun advanced every day towards a certain point, and, having arrived there, returned towards that from which it had set out, from the 22d of December to the 21st of June: they fixed these points, which they called *Solstices*, because the direct motion of the sun was stopped at them; and represented the bounds of the sun's motion by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, because the sun no sooner arrived there, than it turned back. Astronomers, observing the motion of the sun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every 24 hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and is the same which our earth would appear to describe, if viewed from the sun; in other words, it is the plane of the earth's orbit extended to the heavens, or starry firmament. It passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a zone called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely at an angle of $23^{\circ} 29'$, the sun's greatest declination. To express this motion, they

they supposed two points in the heavens, equally distant from and parallel to this circle, which they called the *Poles* of the Zodiac; which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, describe the two *Polar Circles*. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles by two other circles, called *Colures*, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed, that when the sun was in any point of its course, all the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle, passing through the poles, which they call a *Meridian*, and which is immoveable in the artificial sphere, as well as the *Horizon*, which is another circle, representing the bounds betwixt the two hemispheres, or half spheres; viz. that which is above, and that which is below it.

Instructions for using the Artificial Sphere.

To enable the reader more fully to comprehend the subject under consideration, we have given an exact representation of a newly-improved artificial or armillary sphere, with letters of reference to the several parts, and instructions for using the instrument. The exterior parts of it represent the principal circles of the heavens, viz.

1. The equinoctial, A A, which is divided into 360 degrees. 2. The ecliptic, or zodiac, B B, which is divided into 12 signs, and each sign into 30 degrees, &c. 3. The tropic of Cancer C C. 4. The northern or arctic circle E E, and the southern or antarctic circle F F, each $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from its respective pole, at N and S. 5. The equinoctial colure, G G, passing through the north and south poles of the heaven at N and S, and through the equinoctial points, Aries and Libra, in the ecliptic. 6. The solstitial colure, H H, passing through the poles of the heavens, and through the solstitial points, Cancer and Capricorn, in the ecliptic. In the north pole of the ecliptic is a nut *b*, to which is fixed one end of a quadrantal wire, and to the other end a small sun Y, which is carried round the ecliptic B B, by turning the nut; and in the south pole of the ecliptic is a pin at *d*, on which is another quadrantal wire, with a small moon Z on it, which may be moved round by the hand. With the circular rings is a small terrestrial globe I, fixed on an axis K K, which extends from the north and south poles of the globe, to those of the celestial sphere at N and S; on this axis is fixed the flat celestial meridian L, which may be set directly over the meridian of any place on the globe, and then turned round with the globe so as to keep over the same meridian upon it. This globe is fitted the moveable horizon M M, so as to turn upon two strong wires, proceeding from its east and west points to the globe, and entering the globe at opposite points of its equator, which is a moveable brass ring, let into the globe in a groove all round its equator; the globe may be turned by hand within its frame, so as to place any given meridian upon it, directly under the celestial meridian L. The horizon is divided into 360 degrees all

round its outermost edge, within which are the points of the compass, for shewing the amplitude of the sun and moon, both in degrees and points. The celestial meridian L L passes through two notches in the north and south points of horizon. And if the globe be turned round, the horizon and meridian turn with it. At the south pole of the sphere is a circle of 24 hours, fixed to the rings, and on the axis is an index, which goes round that circle, if the globe be turned round its axis.

Three feet support the whole fabric, which may be elevated or depressed upon the joint O, to any number of degrees, by means of the arc P, which is fixed into the strong brass arm Q, and slides in the upright piece R, in which is a screw at *r* to fix it at any proper elevation. In the box T are two wheels and two pinions, whose axis comes out at *a* and *b*, either of which may be turned by the milled nuts fixed to them. When the nut *b* is turned, the terrestrial globe, with its horizon and celestial meridian keep at rest; and the whole sphere of circles turns round from east by south to west, carrying the sun Y, and moon Z, round the same way, and causing them to rise above and set below the horizon; but when the nut *a* is turned forward, the sphere, with the sun and moon, keep at rest, and the earth, with its horizon and meridian, turn round from west by south to east; and bring the same points of the horizon to the sun and moon, to which these bodies came when the earth kept at rest, and they were carried round it, shewing that they rise and set in the same points of the horizon, and at the same time in the hour-circle, whether the motion be in the earth, or in the heavens. If the earthly globe be turned, the hour-index goes round its hour-circle; but if the sphere be turned, the hour-circle goes round below the index.

To rectify the sphere for use, first slacken the screw *r* in the upright stem R, and taking hold of the arm Q, move it up or down, until the given degree of latitude for any place be at the side of the stem R, and then the axis of the sphere will be properly elevated, so as to stand parallel to the axis of the world, if the machine be set north and south by a small compass: this done, count the latitude from the north pole, upon the celestial meridian L, down towards the north notch of the horizon, and set the horizon to that latitude; then turn the nut *b*, until the sun Y comes to the given day of the year in the ecliptic, and the sun will be at its proper place for that day: find the place of the moon's ascending node, and also the place of the moon, by an ephemeris, and set them right accordingly. Lastly, turn the nut *b* until either the sun comes to the meridian L, or until the meridian comes to the sun (according as you want the sphere or earth to move), and set the hour-index to the XII. marked noon, and the whole machine will be rectified. Then turn the nut *a*, and observe when the sun or moon rises or sets in the horizon, and the hour-index will shew the times thereof for the given day. Those who understand the use of the globes will be at no loss to work many other problems by this sphere.

PART III.

DESCRIPTION AND USE OF THE TERRESTRIAL GLOBE,

ILLUSTRATED BY GEOGRAPHICAL PROBLEMS AND OBSERVATIONS.

THE TERRESTRIAL GLOBE is a representation of the surface of the earth on an artificial ball, on which the several countries and places are laid down according to their relative situations, and to which the circles of the sphere before described are transferred.

AXIS AND POLES.—The *axis* of the earth is that imaginary line passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to turn round once in 24 hours. The extreme points of this line are called the *poles*; one in the north and the other in the south, which are exactly under the north and south poles of the heavens.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.—These are commonly divided into the *greater* and *lesser*. A great circle is that whose plane passes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemispheres. A lesser circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot pass through the centre of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are six in number, the lesser only four.

The first great circle is the **EQUATOR**, or **EQUINOCTIAL**, by navigators called the *Line*: its poles are the same with those of the world; and it passes through the east and west points of the earth, dividing it into the northern and southern hemispheres. It is divided into 360 degrees, the use of which will soon appear.

The **HORIZON** is another great circle, and represented by a broad circular piece of wood encompassing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres. Geographers very properly distinguish the horizon into the *sensible* and *rational*. The first is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight, when we view the heavens around us apparently touching the earth or sea. This circle determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eastern edge, we say they rise; and when they go beneath the western, we say they are set. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompasses the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles, each 90 degrees distant from its plane, are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*; the former exactly above our heads, and the latter directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle which represents it on the globe, has several circles drawn upon it: of these the innermost is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve signs of the zodiac, viz. thirty to each sign. Next to this, you have the names of these signs, together with the days of the month, according to the old style, and then according to the new style. Besides these, there is a circle representing the 32 points of the

mariner's compass. The use of all these will be explained hereafter.

The **MERIDIAN** circle is represented by the *brass ring* on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into 360 degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; so that, counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times 90 degrees, and divides the earth into the eastern and western hemispheres. This circle is called the *meridian*, because when the sun comes to the south part of it, it is then *meridies*, or mid-day, and then the sun has its greatest altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now, as the sun is never in its meridian altitude at two places east or west of one another at the same time, each of these places must have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator, answering to the twenty-four hours in the day; for every place situated 15 degrees to the west of another, has its mid-day exactly one hour later.

The **ZODIAC** is a broad circle that cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve signs already mentioned are represented. Through these signs the sun seems to pass within the space of twelve months. In the middle of this circle is a line, called the **CLIPTRIC**, from which the sun never deviates in his annual course, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month.

The **COLURES** are two great circles passing both through the poles of the world and one of them through the equinoctial points, *Aries* and *Libra*, and the other through the solstitial points *Cancer* and *Capricorn*; the one called the *Equinoctial Colure*, the other the *Solstitial Colure*.

The **TROPICS** are two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at 23 degrees 30 minutes distance from it, the one towards the north, the other towards the south. They are so called from the Greek word *trope*, “a turning,” because the sun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from its former course. The one is called the *Tropic of Cancer*, the other of *Capricorn*, because they pass through the first points of these signs.

The **POLAR CIRCLES** are two other circles drawn at the like distance of 23 degrees 30 minutes, reckoning on the meridian from the poles. The northern is called the *Arctic*, because the north pole is near the constellation of the Bear, Greek *arktos*; the southern, the *Antarctic*, because opposite to the former.

ZONES.—After the four lesser circles which we have last mentioned are to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions,

portions, and consequently that the places on its surface might be distinguished according as they lay in one or other of these portions, which are called *zones*, from the Greek word *zone*, which signifies a girdle; being broad spaces, like swathes, girding the earth about.

The *torrid zone* lies between the tropics, and is so called because of its being continually exposed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the sun.

The two *temperate zones* are comprised between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, because, meeting the rays of the sun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat.

The two *frigid zones* are inclosed within the polar circles, and are called frigid, or frozen, because every thing is frozen throughout nearly the whole year.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.—To supply the place of compasses, and to facilitate the performance of several problems, such as finding the altitude of the sun, measuring the distance and bearings of places, &c. globes are provided with a pliant, narrow plate of brass, divided into ninety degrees, which screws on the brass meridian, and turns every way, called the *Quadrant of Altitude*.

HOUR CIRCLE.—This is a small circle, fixed under the brazen meridian, divided into twenty-four hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

LONGITUDE.—The longitude of a place is its distance from the first meridian, in degrees of a circle passing through it parallel to the equator, and is reckoned either east or west. The first meridian is an imaginary semi-circle drawn through any particular place from pole to pole. Its situation is arbitrary, and has been fixed differently at different times, and in different countries. Formerly Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary islands, was generally made the first meridian; probably because the ancients considered it as the most westerly point of the habitable globe; but, at present, the English astronomers usually reckon from the meridian of London, the French from that of Paris, &c. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, it can only be remote from another half that distance. The degrees of longitude are not equal, like those of latitude, as they diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, on their approach to the pole, as appears by the following table, in which the length of a degree of longitude is given, for each parallel of latitude, in miles and hundredth parts of a mile.

Lat. Miles.	Lat. Miles.	Lat. Miles.	Lat. Miles.	Lat. Miles.	Lat. Miles.
0° 69.20	15° 66.84	30° 59.92	45° 48.93	60° 34.60	75° 17.91
1 69.19	16 66.52	31 59.32	46 48.07	61 33.55	76 16.74
2 69.16	17 66.17	32 58.69	47 47.19	62 32.49	77 15.57
3 69.10	18 65.81	33 58.04	48 46.30	63 31.42	78 14.39
4 69.05	19 65.43	34 57.37	49 45.40	64 30.33	79 13.20
5 68.95	20 65.03	35 56.69	50 44.48	65 29.24	80 12.02
6 68.82	21 64.60	36 55.98	51 43.55	66 28.15	81 10.82
7 68.64	22 64.16	37 55.26	52 42.60	67 27.04	82 9.63
8 68.52	23 63.70	38 54.53	53 41.64	68 25.92	83 8.43
9 68.35	24 63.22	39 53.78	54 40.67	69 24.80	84 7.23
10 68.15	25 62.72	40 53.01	55 39.69	70 23.67	85 6.03
11 67.93	26 62.20	41 52.23	56 38.69	71 22.53	86 4.83
12 67.69	27 61.66	42 51.42	57 37.69	72 21.38	87 3.62
13 67.43	28 61.10	43 50.61	58 36.67	73 20.23	88 2.41
14 67.15	29 60.52	44 49.78	59 35.64	74 19.07	89 1.20

LATITUDE.—The distance of any place north or south from the equator to either of the poles is called its *latitude*: it never exceeds 90 degrees, and these are marked on the brazen meridian. Geographers suppose a circle to be drawn through every particular spot on the globe, which they call a *parallel of latitude*; and all the places under which have the same seasons, and the same length of days and nights.

CLIMATES.—The space comprehended between two supposed parallels of latitude, where the length of the longest day in one exceeds that in the other half an hour is called a *climate*. As the length of the day under the equator is always 12 hours, and that of the polar circle 24 hours, it is evident there must be 24 of these climates between them. Within the polar circle, the climates are reckoned by the increase of the day by months, till we reach the poles, where the whole year consists of only six months day and six months night.

A TABLE OF CLIMATES,

Containing the Names of the most remarkable Places situated in every Climate north of the Equator; the degree of Latitude to which each Climate extends, and the Length of the longest Day.

Climate.	Names of Countries.	Latitude.	Longest Day.
1.	The first Climate, containing Upper Guinea, in Africa; Malacca, in Asia; Guiana, in S. America, &c. extends from the Equator to	D. M.	D. H.
2.	Abyssinia, in Africa; Siam, Madras, & Pondicherry, in Asia; Straits of Darien, between N. & S. America; Granada, St. Vincent, Trinidad, Barbadoes, in the W. Indies	8 25	12 30
3.	Mecca, in Arabia; Bombay, Calcutta, and Canton, in Asia; Mexico, in N. America; Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christopher, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadaloupe	16 25	13 0
4.	Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Delhi, in Asia; Gulf of Mexico, and East Florida, in N. America; the Havannah, in the West Indies	23 50	13 30
5.	Gibraltar; the Mediterranean Sea; the Barbary Coast; Jerusalem; Ispahan; Nankin; California, New Mexico, West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas	30 25	14 0
6.	Lisbon, Madrid, Minorca, Sardinia, Greece, in Europe; Asia Minor, Samarcand, Pekin, Japan, in Asia; Virginia, Maryland, and Philadelphia, in N. America	36 28	14 30
7.	Northern provinces of Spain, southern ditto of France, Turin, Genoa, Rome, Constantinople, in Europe; Tartary, in Asia; New York, and Boston, in N. America	41 22	15 0
8.	Paris, Vienna, in Europe; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada, in N. America	45 29	15 30
9.	London, Flanders, Prague, Dresden, Cracow, south of Russia, part of Tartary	49 1	16 0
10.	Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, Warsaw; Labrador, & New S. Wales, in N. Amer.	52 0	16 30
11.	Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moscow	54 27	17 0
12.	South part of Sweden, Tobolski	56 37	17 30
13.	Orkney Isles, Stockholm	58 29	18 0
14.	Bergen, Petersburg	59 53	18 30
15.	Hudson's Straits, in North America	61 19	19 0
16.	Siberia, and the south part of W. Greenland	62 25	19 30
17.	Drontheim, in Norway	63 22	20 0
18.	Part of Finland, in Russia	64 6	20 30
19.	Archangel, on the White Sea, Russia	64 49	21 0
20.	Hecla, in Iceland	65 21	21 30
21.	Northern part of Russia and Siberia	65 47	22 0
22.	New North Wales, in North America	66 6	22 30
23.	Davis's Straits, in North America	66 20	23 0
24.	Samoieda	66 28	23 30
25.	South part of Lapland	66 31	24 0
26.	West Greenland	67 21	1 Month
27.	Zembla Australis	69 48	2 Months
28.	Zembla Borealis	73 37	3 Months
29.	Spitsbergen, or East Greenland	78 30	4 Months
30.	Unknown	84 5	5 Months
		90 0	6 Months

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROBLEM 1. *To rectify the Globe.*

The globe being set upon a true plane, raise the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith; and if there be any mariner's compass upon the pedestal, let the globe be so situated that the brazen meridian may stand due south and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing for its variation.

PROB. 2. *To find the Longitude and Latitude of any Place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and the degree it is under is the latitude; then observe the degree of the equator under the same meridian, and you will have the longitude.

PROB. 3. *The Longitude and Latitude of any Place being given, to find that Place on the Globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; find upon the same meridian the degree of latitude, whether south or north, and the point exactly under that degree is the place desired.

PROB. 4. *The Latitude of any Place being given, to find all those Places that have the same Latitude.*

The globe being rectified (a) according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the same, and turning the globe round, all those places passing under the said mark have the same latitude with the given place.

PROB. 5. *Two Places being given on the Globe, to find the Distance between them.*

If the places are under the same meridian, that is, have the same longitude, their difference of latitude, reckoning $69\frac{1}{2}$ miles to a degree, will give the distance.

If they have the same latitude, but differ in longitude, their distance may be found by their difference of longitude, reckoning the number of miles in a degree of longitude in their common parallel of latitude, according to the table given above.

If they differ both in latitude and longitude, lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will give their distance from each other, reckoning every degree to be $69\frac{1}{2}$ English miles.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic at any Time.*

The month and day being given, look for the same upon the wooden horizon; and over-against the day you will find the sign and degree in which the sun is at that time; which sign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the same is the sun's place, or nearly, at the time desired.

PROB. 7. *The Month and Day being given, as also the particular Time of that Day, to find those Places to which the Sun is in the Meridian at that Time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place where you are, bring the said place to the

brazen meridian, and, setting the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, or where you are, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII.; which done, fix the globe in that situation, and observe what places are exactly under the upper hemisphere of the brazen meridian; for those are the places desired.

PROB. 8. *To know the Length of the Day and Night in any Place of the Earth at any Time.*

Elevate the pole (a) according to the (a) Prob. 1. latitude of the given place; find the sun's (b) Prob. 6. place in the ecliptic (b) at that time; which being brought to the east side of the horizon, set the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure of XII.: and, turning the globe till the aforesaid place of the ecliptic touch the western side of the horizon, look upon the horary circle; and where the index points, reckon the number of hours between the same and the upper figure of XII. for that is the length of the day; the complement of which to twenty-four hours is the length of the night.

PROB. 9. *To know by the Globe what o'Clock it is in any Part of the World at any Time, provided you know the Hour of the Day where you are at the same Time.*

(c) Prob. 1. Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raised (c) according to its latitude, and set the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the desired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the hour at that place.

PROB. 10. *A Place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find the Two Days of the Year in which the Sun shall be Vertical to the same.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and observe the two points of the ecliptic, that pass through the said degree of latitude. Find upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the sun's annual motion) on what days he passes through the aforesaid points of the ecliptic; for those are the days required, in which the sun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The Month and Day being given, to find by the Globe those Places of the Northern Frigid Zone, where the Sun begins then to shine constantly without setting; as also those Places of the Southern Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally absent.*

The day given (which must be always one of those either between the vernal equinox and the summer solstice, or between the autumnal equinox and the winter solstice), find (d) the sun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the same, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the sun's place in the ecliptic, making a mark where the reckoning ends. Then turn the globe round, and all the places passing under the said mark are those in which the sun begins to shine constantly, without setting, upon the given day.

For

For solution of the latter part of the problem, set off the same distance from the south pole upon the brazen meridian towards the equator, as was in the former case set off from the north; then, marking as before, and turning the globe round, all places passing under the mark are those where the sun begins his total disappearance from the given day.

PROB. 12. *A Place being given in either of the Frigid Zones, to find by the Globe what Number of Days the Sun constantly shines upon the said Place, and what Days he is absent, as also the first and last Day of his Appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and observing its latitude (*a*), elevate the globe accordingly; count the same number of degrees upon the meridian from each side of the equator as the place is distant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully observe what two degrees of the ecliptic pass exactly under the two points marked on the meridian; first for the northern arch of the circle, namely that comprehended between the two degrees marked, which, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the sun constantly shines above the horizon of the given place; and the opposite arch of the said circle will, in like manner, give the number of days in which he is totally absent, and also will point out which days those are. And in the interval he will daily rise and set.

PROB. 13. *The Month and Day being given, to find those Places to which the Sun, when on the Meridian, shall be vertical on that Day.*

The sun's place in the ecliptic being found (*b*), bring the same to the brazen meridian; on which make a small mark exactly above the sun's place. Then turn the globe; and those places which have the sun vertical in the meridian, will successively pass under the said mark.

PROB. 14. *The Month and Day being given, to find upon what Point of the Compass the Sun then rises and sets in any Place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the place, and, finding the sun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the same to the eastern side of the horizon, and it will show the point of the compass upon which he then rises. By turning the globe till this place coincides with the western side of the horizon, you may also see upon that circle the exact point of his setting.

PROB. 15. *To know the Length of the longest and shortest Days and Nights in any part of the World.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the first degree of Cancer if in the northern, or Capricorn if in the southern hemisphere, to the eastern side of the horizon. Then, setting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe about till the sign of Cancer touches the western side of the horizon, and observe upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper

figure of XII. reckoning them according to the motion of the index; for that is the length of the longest day, the complement of which to 24 hours is the extent of the shortest night. The shortest day and longest night are only the reverse of the former.

PROB. 16. *The Hour of the Day being given at any Place, to find those Places of the Earth where it is either Noon or Midnight, or any other particular Hour, at the same Time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. and observe what places are exactly under the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian; for in them it is mid-day at the time given. Which done, turn the globe till the index points at the lower figure of XII.; and whatever places are then in the lower semicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the same manner we may find those places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index points at the hour desired, and observing the places that are then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The Day and Hour being given, to find where the Sun is vertical at that Time.*

The sun's place in the ecliptic (*a*) being found, and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the same; then (*b*) find those places of the earth in whose meridian the sun is at that instant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, observe that part of the earth which falls exactly under the aforesaid mark in the brazen meridian, for that is the particular place to which the sun is vertical at that time.

PROB. 18. *The Day and Hour at any Place being given, to find all those Places where the Sun is then rising, or setting, or in the Meridian; consequently, all those Places which are enlightened at that time, and those which have Twilight, or dark Night.*

This problem cannot be solved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour circle fixed upon the brass meridian, unless the sun be on or near either of the tropics on the given day. But, by a globe fitted up with the hour-circle on its surface below the meridian, it may be solved for any day in the year, according to the following method.

Having found the place to which the sun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemisphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon as are equal to the latitude of that place: if the place be in the southern hemisphere, elevate the south pole accordingly, and bring the said place to the brazen meridian. Then, all those places which are in the western semicircle of the horizon have the sun rising to them at that time, and those in the eastern semicircle have it setting; to those under the upper semicircle of the brass meridian, it is noon; and to those under the lower semicircle, it is midnight. All those places which are above the horizon are enlightened

ened by the sun, and have the sun just as many degrees above them, as they themselves are above the horizon; and this height may be known by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the sun is vertical; and then laying it over any other place, observing what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the said place and the horizon. In all those places that are eighteen degrees below the western semicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is just beginning; in all those places that are eighteen degrees below the eastern semicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all those places that are lower than eighteen degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour-index be set to the upper figure of XII. or noon, and then the globe be turned round eastward on its axis; when the place comes to the western semicircle of the horizon, the index will show the time of the sun's rising at that place; and when the same place comes to the eastern semicircle of the horizon, the index will shew the time of the sun's setting.

To those places which do not go under the horizon, the sun sets not on that day; and to those which do not come above it, the sun does not rise.

PROB. 19. *The Month and Day being given, with the Place of the Moon in the Zodiac, and her true Latitude, to find the exact Hour when she will rise and set, together with her southing, or coming to the Meridian of the Place.*

The moon's place in the zodiac may be found by an ordinary almanack; and her latitude, which is her distance from the ecliptic, by applying the semicircle of position to her place in the zodiac. For the solution of the problem, elevate the pole (a) according to the latitude of the given place; and the sun's place in the ecliptic at the time being (b) found and marked, as also the moon's (b) Prob. 6. place at the same time, bring the sun's place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle at noon: then turn the globe till the moon's place successively meet with the eastern and western side of the horizon, as also the brazen meridian; and the index will point at those various times the particular hours of her rising, setting, and southing.

PROB. 20. *A Place being given, and its true Distance from a second Place, to find what other Places of the Earth are at the same Distance from the given Place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the said place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon upon that quadrant the given distance between the first and second place, provided the same be under 90 degrees; otherwise you must use the semicircle of position, and making a mark where the reckoning ends, and moving the said quadrant or semicircle quite round upon the surface of the globe, all places passing under that mark are those desired.

PROB. 21. *The Diameter of an artificial Globe being given, to find its Surface in Square, and its Solidity in Cubic Measure.*

Multiply the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the first: then multiply the said product by one-sixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the second. After the same manner, we may find the surface and solidity of the natural globe, as also the whole body of the atmosphere surrounding the same, provided it be always and every where of the same height: for, having found the perpendicular height of the atmosphere by the common experiment of the ascent of mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, double the said height, and add the same to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as a new diameter, by its proper circumference, which again multiply by one sixth of that diameter, and from the product subtract the solidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmosphere.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place; and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Those places which lie on the equator have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and those places which lie on the first meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Consequently, that particular place of the earth where the first meridian intersects the equator has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth equally enjoy the benefit of the sun, in respect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, twelve hours each, at all times of the year. For though the sun declines alternately from the equator towards the north and towards the south, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the sun must always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. twelve hours each, when the sun is in the equinoctial: for, in all the elevations of the poles short of 90 degrees (which is the greatest), one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the sun enters the signs of ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic the circle of the sun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer any place is to the equator, the less is the difference between the length of the days and nights

in that place; and the more remote, the contrary:—the circles which the sun describes in the heavens every twenty-four hours being cut more nearly equal in the former case, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or short the day and night be at any one of those places at any time of the year, it is then of the same length at all the rest; for, in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the sun's declination), all those places will keep equally long above and below the horizon.

9. The sun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to those under the tropics once a year, but never any where else. For there can be no place between the tropics but that there will be two points in the ecliptic whose declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and there is but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the sun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the sun, when he is in the nearer tropic, continues twenty-four hours above the horizon without setting, because no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the sun is in the farther tropic, he is for the same length of time without rising, because no part of that tropic is below their horizon. But at all other times of the year, he rises and sets there as in other places; because all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or less cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon: and when the sun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal course must be in one or other of those circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemisphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longest day and shortest night is when the sun is in the northern tropic; and the shortest day and longest night is when the sun is in the southern tropic; because no circle of the sun's daily motion is so much above the horizon, and so little below it, as the northern tropic; and none so little above it, and so much below it, as the southern. In the southern hemisphere, the contrary takes place.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the sun appears for some number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without setting, and at the opposite time of the year without rising; because some part of the ecliptic never sets in the former case, and as much of the opposite part never rises in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from, the pole, these places are, the longer or shorter is the sun's continuing presence or absence.

13. If a ship set out from any port, and sail round the earth eastward to the same port again, let her perform her voyage in what time she will, the people in that ship, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than those who reside at the same port; because, by going contrary to the sun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get so

much the sooner above the setting sun, than if they had remained for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off from the length of every day a part proportionable to their own motion, they will gain a complete day at their return, without gaining one moment of absolute time. If they sail westward, they will reckon one day less than the people do who reside at the same port; because, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the sun, they will keep him each particular day so much longer above the horizon as answers to that day's course; and thereby cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without losing one moment of absolute time.

Hence, if two ships should set out at the same time from any port, and sail round the globe, one eastward and the other westward, so as to meet at the same port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning the time, at their return. If they sail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then six, &c.

14. The inhabitants of the earth are distinguished in regard to their respective situations, and are denominated either *Periæci*, *Antæci*; or *Antipodes*.

The *Periæci* are situate under the same parallel, but opposite meridians: it is midnight with one when it is noon with the other; but the length of their days, and their seasons, are the same. These are found by turning the horary index twelve hours, or turning the globe half round.

The *Antæci* are situate under the same meridian, but opposite parallels: these have the seasons opposite to ours, and the same length of days; but when their days are longest, ours are shortest. These are found by numbering as many degrees on the opposite side of the equator as we are on this.

The *Antipodes* lie under opposite meridians, and opposite parallels: these have different seasons, and their noon-day is our midnight, and their longest day our shortest. These are found by turning the horary index twelve hours from the given place, or turning the globe half round, and then counting as many degrees on the opposite side of the equator as the given place is on this.

15. The inhabitants of the earth are also distinguished by their different shadows at noon-day, and are denominated either *Amphiscii*, *Ascii*, *Heteroscii*, or *Periscii*.

The *Amphiscii* inhabit the torrid zone, and have their noon-day shadows both north and south: when the sun is south of them, then their shadows are north; and when the sun is north of them, their shadows are south: these are also called *Ascii*, because the sun is vertical twice every year at noon-day, and then they have no shadow.

The *Heteroscii*, who inhabit the temperate zones, have their shadows always one way at noon-day. In the northern temperate zone their shadows are always north, and in the southern temperate zone their shadows are always south, at noon-day.

The *Periscii* inhabit within the polar circles, and have their shadows every way, the sun being above their horizon all the twenty-four hours, several months in the year, viz. when it is on the same side of the equator they are of; and if there were any inhabitants at either of the poles, they would have but one day and one night, of six months each, in a year.

PART IV.

DESCRIPTION AND USE OF THE CELESTIAL GLOBE.

THE CELESTIAL GLOBE is an artificial representation of the heavens, on which the fixed stars are marked according to their magnitude and situation. This, however, is not so just a representation of the heavens as the terrestrial globe is of the earth, because the stars are drawn upon a convex sphere, whereas they appear to us in a concave one; so that, to have a proper conception of the celestial globe, we must suppose the observer to be placed in the centre, and the surface to be transparent; then, by turning on its axis, it would exhibit a just representation of the apparent diurnal motion of the heavens. The planets are not marked on the celestial globe, on account of the irregularity of their motions.

The equator, called on the celestial globe the equinoctial, the ecliptic, tropics, polar circles, horizon, and brazen meridians, are exactly alike on both globes: both also are rectified in the same manner. *N. B.* The sun's place for any day in the year stands directly over that day on the horizon of the celestial globe, as it does on that day of the terrestrial.

The *longitude* of the stars and planets is reckoned upon the ECLIPTIC; the numbers beginning at the first point of Aries, or the vernal equinox, where the ecliptic crosses the equator, and increasing according to the order of the signs. The *latitude* of the stars and planets is determined by their distance from the ecliptic, upon a secondary or great circle passing through its poles, and crossing it at right angles. Twenty-four of these circular lines, which cross the ecliptic at right angles, fifteen degrees from each other, are usually marked on the celestial globe, meeting in two points, called the *poles* of the ecliptic. Hence longitude and latitude on the celestial globe bear just the same relation to the *ecliptic*, as they do on the terrestrial globe to the *equator*. As the longitude of places on the earth is measured by degrees upon the equator, counting from the first meridian; so the longitude of the heavenly bodies is measured by degrees upon the ecliptic, counting from the first point of Aries. And as the latitude of the earth is measured by degrees upon the meridian, counting from the equator, so the latitude of the heavenly bodies is measured by degrees upon a circle of longitude, counting either north or south from the ecliptic. The sun, therefore, has no latitude, being always in the ecliptic; nor do we usually speak of his longitude, but of his *place* in the ecliptic, expressing it by such a degree of such a sign.

The distance of any heavenly body from the EQUINOCTIAL, measured upon the meridian, is called its *declination*. The sun's declination, either north or south, is the same as the latitude of the place to which he is then vertical. Therefore, all parallels of declination

on the celestial globe are the same as parallels of latitude on the terrestrial.

That which is called longitude on the terrestrial globe is called *right ascension* on the celestial, namely, the distance of the sun or stars from the first point of Aries, counted on the EQUINOCTIAL. Astronomers also speak of *oblique ascension* and *descension*, by which is meant the distance of that point of the equinoctial from the first point of Aries, which rises or sets at the same time that the sun or star rises or sets. Or thus, the *right ascension* of the sun or of a star is that point of the equinoctial which comes to the meridian with the sun or star: *oblique ascension* is that point of the equinoctial which rises or sets with the star. *Ascensional difference* is the difference between right and oblique ascension. The sun's ascensional difference turned into time, is just so much as he rises before or after six o'clock.

Those stars which lie between the equinoctial and the northern half of the ecliptic, have north declination and south latitude; those which lie between the equinoctial and the southern half of the ecliptic, have south declination, and north latitude; and all those which lie between the tropics and the poles, have their declinations and latitude of the same denomination.

Great circles, passing through the zenith and nadir, and consequently cutting the horizon at right angles, or straight over, are called *vertical circles*, or *azimuths*. The vertical circle passing through the east and west points of the horizon, is called the *prime vertical*, or *circle of east and west*.

The *azimuth* of any star is an arch of the horizon intercepted between the vertical circle passing through it and the north or south point of the horizon. Thus, if a vertical circle passing through a star cut the horizon in a point 70 degrees from the north, we say, the star's azimuth is 70 degrees from the north, or 110 degrees from the south. The *amplitude* of a star is the distance of its rising or setting from the east or west. The amplitude of a star rising is called *ortive*, or *oriental*; setting, *occasive*, or *occidental*: and both these are called *northern*, or *southern*, as the star rises or sets to the north or south of the east or west points. *Amplitude* denotes the bearing of the sun or of a star, with respect to east or west, only at their rising or setting; but *azimuth* shews their bearing with respect to east and west at any time, either when above or under the horizon.

All lesser circles parallel to the horizon are called its *parallels*, and, with respect to the heavens, they are called *alcamantbers*, or *parallels of altitude*. The altitude of a star, or of any point in the heavens, is an arch of a vertical

vertical circle intercepted between the star or point and the horizon. If the star or point be upon the meridian, it is then called the *meridian altitude*. The complement of altitude, or what it wants of 90 degrees, is called *zenith distance*.

The want of vertical circles and parallels of altitude on the globe is supplied by the quadrant of altitude, which, being screwed to the brass meridian in the zenith, and having its lower end put in between the globe and wooden horizon, may be turned about to any point required. The fiducial or graduated edge, represents the vertical circles and the degrees marked on it describe the parallels of altitude.

By altering the position of the globe, one kind of circles may be made to represent or supply the place of another. Thus, if the poles of the world be brought to the zenith and nadir, that is, in a *parallel sphere*, the equinoctial will coincide with the horizon, the meridians will become vertical circles, and the parallels of declination will become *alcamanthers*, or parallels of altitude. In like manner, if the poles of the ecliptic be brought to the zenith and nadir, the ecliptic will coincide with the horizon, the circles of longitude on the celestial globe will become vertical circles, and the parallels of latitude will become *alcamanthers*, for the latitude and longitude of stars are determined from the ecliptic.

PROBLEMS PERFORMED ON THE CELESTIAL GLOBE.

PROBLEM 1. *To find the right ascension and declination of the sun, or any fixed star.*

Bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the brazen meridian; then that degree in the equinoctial which is cut by the meridian, is the sun's *right ascension*; and that degree of the meridian which is over the sun's place, is his *declination*. Bring any fixed star to the meridian, and its right ascension will be cut by the meridian in the equinoctial; and the degree of the meridian that stands over it, is its declination. So that the right ascension and declination on the celestial globe are found in the same manner as longitude and latitude on the terrestrial.

PROB. 2. *To find the latitude and longitude of any star.*

If the given star be on the north side of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant of altitude on the north pole of the ecliptic, where the twelve semicircles meet, which divide the ecliptic into twelve signs; but if the star be on the south side of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant on the south pole of the ecliptic. Keeping the 90th degree of the quadrant on the proper pole, turn the quadrant about until its graduated edge cuts the star: then the number of degrees in the quadrant, between the ecliptic and the star, is its latitude; and the degrees of the ecliptic, cut by the quadrant, is the star's longitude, reckoned according to the sign in which the quadrant then is.

PROB. 3. *To present the face of the starry firmament, as seen from any given place of the earth, at any hour of the night.*

Rectify the celestial globe for the given latitude, the zenith, and sun's place, in every respect, as taught by the problem for the terrestrial; and turn it about till the index points to the given hour: then the upper hemisphere of the globe will represent the visible half of the heavens for that time; all the stars upon the globe being then in such situations as exactly correspond to those in the heavens. And if the globe be placed duly north and south by means of a small sea-compass, every star in the globe will point to the like star in the heavens, by which means the constellations and remarkable stars may be easily known. All those stars which are in the eastern side of the horizon, are then rising in the eastern side of the heavens; all in the western, are setting in the western side; and all those under the upper part of the frozen meridian, between the south point of the horizon, and the north pole, are at their greatest altitude, if the latitude of the place be north; but if the latitude be south, those stars which lie under the upper part of the meridian, between the north point of the horizon and the south pole, are at their greatest altitude.

PROB. 4. *The latitude of the place, and day of the month being given, to find when any star will rise, be upon the meridian, or set.*

Having rectified the globe, turn it round until the given star comes to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index will shew the time of the star's rising; then turn the globe westward, and when the star comes to the brazen meridian, the index will shew the time of the star's coming to the meridian of your place; lastly, turn on until the star comes to the western side of the horizon, and the index will shew the time of the star's setting.

N. B. In northern latitudes, those stars which are less distant from the north pole than the quantity of its elevation above the north point of the horizon (which, as before observed, is always equal to the latitude of the place) never set; and those which are less distant from the south pole than the number of degrees by which it is depressed below the horizon, never rise: and *vice versa* in southern latitudes. The circle including the former is called the *circle of perpetual apparition*; that of the latter, the *circle of perpetual occultation*.

PROB. 5. *To find at what time of the year a given star will be upon the meridian at a given hour of the night.*

Bring the given star to the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe, until the index points to XII. at noon, and the upper semicircle of the meridian will then cut the sun's place, answering to the day of the year sought; which day may be easily found against the like place of the sun, among the signs on the wooden horizon.

PART V. OF THE EARTH,

ITS TRUE FIGURE, DIAMETER, NATURAL DIVISIONS, &c. WITH AN ACCOUNT OF THE WINDS AND TIDES, OBSERVATIONS ON THE USE AND CONSTRUCTION OF MAPS, LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES, &c.

TRUE FIGURE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.

THOUGH, in speaking of the earth with the other planets, we considered it as a spherical or globular body, yet this is not its true figure; Sir Isaac Newton having demonstrated, from mathematical principles, that it is an *oblate spheroid*, or nearly in the form of an orange, being flattened at the poles, and juttied out towards the equator; so that a line drawn through the centre, and passing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same centre, and passing through the east and west points.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER.—The diameter of the earth is about 8244 miles; so that its circumference exceeds 25,000.

NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

The Earth is composed of two constituent parts, *land and water*.

The various forms of the land are distinguished by the names of continents, islands, peninsulas, isthmuses, promontories, capes, coasts, mountains, &c. A *continent* is a large portion of land, containing several countries or kingdoms, without any entire separation of its parts by water, as Europe. An island is a smaller part of land, entirely surrounded by water, as Great Britain. A *peninsula* is a tract of land every where surrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent, as the Morea in Greece; and that neck of land, which so joins it, is called an *isthmus*, as the isthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Asia, and the isthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, stretching itself into the sea, the end of which is called a *cape*, as the Cape of Good Hope. A *coast*, or *shore*, is that part of a country which borders on the sea-side. Mountains, valleys, woods, deserts, plains, &c. are terms generally understood. The most remarkable, however, will be accurately described in this work.

The waters, according to their different situations, are called oceans, seas, lakes, straits, gulfs, bays or creeks, rivers, &c. An *ocean* is a large collection of water, without any entire separation of its parts by land. There are three extensive oceans: the Atlantic, or Western Ocean, which divides the eastern and western continents, and is 3000 miles wide; the Pacific, which divides America from Asia, and is 10,000 miles over; and the Indian Ocean, lying between the East Indies and Africa, 3000 miles wide. A *sea* is less extensive, but connecting itself with the ocean by a strait, and confined by the land, as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A *lake* is a large collection of water entirely sur-

rounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes of Canada. A *strait* is a narrow part of the sea confined or lying between two shores, and opening a passage out of one sea into another, as the strait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is sometimes called a *sound*, as the strait into the Baltic. A *gulf* is a part of the sea running up into the land, and surrounded by it, except at the passage by which it communicates with the sea or ocean. If a gulf be very large, it is called an *inland sea*, as the Mediterranean; if it do not go far into the land, it is called a *bay*, as the bay of Biscay; if it be very small, a *creek*, *haven*, *station*, or *road* for ships, as Milford haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no description; for these lesser divisions of water, like those of land, are to be met with in most countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them.

In order to strengthen the remembrance of the great parts of the land and water we have described, it may be proper to observe that there is a strong analogy or resemblance between them. The description of a continent resembles that of an ocean; an island surrounded with water resembles a lake encompassed with land; a peninsula of land is similar to a gulf, or inland sea; a promontory or cape is like a bay or creek of the sea; and an isthmus, whereby one continent is joined to another, resembles a strait, which unites two seas.

The following TABLE shews the superficial contents of the seas and unknown parts of the world, of the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewise of the great empires and principal islands, placed as they are subordinate to each other in magnitude, in square miles 60 to a degree.

	Sq. Miles.
The Globe	148,510,627
Seas and Unknown Parts	117,843,821
The Habitable World *	30,666,806
Europe	2,749,349
Asia	10,257,487
Africa	8,576,208
America	9,153,762
Persian Empire under Darius	1,650,000
Roman Empire in its utmost height	1,610,000
Russian Empire	4,864,000
Chinese Empire	1,298,000
Turkish Empire	652,960
Present Persian Empire	800,000
British do. exclusive of settlements in Africa and Gibraltar	800,000
United States	1,000,000

* The number of inhabitants computed at present to be in the known world, at a medium, taken from the best calculations, are about 700 millions.

Europe	contains	150 Millions
Asia	-	450
Africa	-	50
America	-	50

Total 700

ISLANDS.

ISLANDS.

	Sq. Miles.		Sq. Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Borneo	228,000	Cyprus	6,300	Rhodes	480
Madagascar	168,000	Jamaica	6,000	Cephalonia	420
Sumatra	129,000	Flores	6,000	Amboyna	400
Japan	118,000	Ceram	5,400	Pomona, Orkneys	324
Great Britain	77,243	Breton	4,000	Scio	300
Celebes	68,400	Socotra	3,600	Martinico	260
Manilla	58,500	Candia	3,220	Lemnos	220
Iceland	46,000	Porto Rico	3,200	Corfu	194
Terr. del Fuego	42,075	Corsica	2,520	Providence	163
Mindanao	39,200	Zealand	1,935	Man	160
Cuba	38,400	Majorca	1,400	Bornholm	160
Java	38,250	St. Jago	1,400	Wight	150
Hispaniola	36,000	Negropont	1,300	Malta	150
Newfoundl.	35,500	Teneriffe	1,272	Barbadoes	140
Ceylon	27,730	Gothland	1,000	Zante	120
Ireland	27,457	Madeira	950	Antigua	100
Formosa	17,000	St. Michael	920	St. Christopher's	80
Anian	11,900	Sky	920	St. Helena	80
Gilolo	10,400	Lewis	880	Guernsey	50
Sicily	9,400	Funen	768	Jersey	43
Timor	7,800	Yvica	625	Bermudas	40
Sardinia	6,600	Minorca	520	Rhode	36

To these Islands may be added the following, which have lately been discovered or more fully explored. The exact dimensions of them are not ascertained; but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largest, which is supposed to be nearly equal in size to the whole continent of Europe:

New Holland	New Hebrides	Sandwich Islands
New Guinea	Otaheite, or King	Navigators' Islands
New Zealand	George's Island	Marquesas
New Caledonia	Friendly Islands	Easter or Davis's 1.

WINDS.

Our habitable earth is every where surrounded by a fine invisible fluid, which extends itself several miles above its surface, and is called *air*. Experiment has proved, that a small quantity of air is capable of being expanded so as to fill a very large space, or to be compressed into a much smaller compass than it occupied before. The principal cause of the expansion of air is heat, as that of its compression is cold. If, therefore, any part of the air or atmosphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compressed. But when air is put in motion, we call it *wind* in general, and a breeze, gale, or storm, according to the quickness or velocity of that motion. Hence we perceive that winds, which are commonly considered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cause, and act with more or less uniformity in proportion as the action of this cause is more or less constant.

Those currents of air, called the **TROPICAL WINDS**, as being confined nearly within the tropics, and which blow from some particular point of the compass without much variation, are of three kinds: 1. The *General Trade Winds*, which extend to nearly 30 degrees of latitude on each side of the equator, in the Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Pacific seas. These winds blow constantly from the east throughout the year, and are occasioned by the action of the sun, which, in moving from east to west, heats, and consequently expands, the air immediately under him; by which means a stream or tide of air always accompanies him in his course, and occasions a perpetual east wind within these limits. This general cause is modified by a number of particulars, the explanation of which would be too tedious and complicated for this Introduction. 2. The *Monsoons*, or shifting

trade-winds, which blow six months in one direction, and the other six months in the opposite, are mostly in the Indian or Eastern ocean, and do not extend more than two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and is accompanied with terrible storms of thunder, lightning, and rain. 3. The *Sea and Land Breezes* are another kind of periodical winds, within the same latitudes, that blow from the land from mid-night to mid-day, and from the sea from about noon till midnight: these, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from shore.

Near the coast of Guinea, in Africa, the wind blows nearly always from the west, south-west, or south. On the coast of Peru, in South America, the wind blows constantly from the south-west.

Beyond the latitude of thirty degrees north and south, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the west than from any other point.

In Holland and some other parts, the north and east winds are drying, because the cold northern sea yields but few vapours, in comparison of those which come from warmer parts of the ocean. But the other winds, especially the westerly, are wet and moist, because they issue from the warm and vaporous parts. However, this property varies according to the different situation of countries. Those winds which blow from the quarters where the vapours rise, gather clouds, which, in conjunction with the vapours of our own region, fill the air. On the other hand, those winds make fair weather which bring little vapour along with them, and bear away that which hangs over us.

As all the heat or cold of wind proceeds from the heat or cold of the country whence it blows, so the same winds are hot and cold every where; except that beyond the line they are just the reverse of what they are with us.

From what has been said, it is sufficiently manifest that the sun is the principal cause of wind, and motion the cause of vapours. But, if we except those constant and periodical winds which blow in some seas, the limits of the rest cannot be determined; nor can we say when they will begin, or when they will end.

TIDES.

The endeavour to account for that periodical ebbing and flowing of the sea, called the *tide*, has occasioned more speculative theories than almost any other phenomenon. The immortal Sir Isaac Newton was the first who satisfactorily explained their cause and nature, by his great principle of attraction, according to which all bodies mutually draw or attract each other, in proportion to their masses and distance. By the action of this power, the earth's threefold motion is ascertained: that on its axis, to produce day and night; that round the sun, to produce the year and seasons; and that round the centre of gravity with the moon, to produce spring and neap tides, by their combined and opposite influence. The moon is so near the earth, in comparison of the sun, that her attraction on the waters of the ocean is to that of the sun as 10 is to 3. At the change of the moon, the attraction of the sun and moon being in the same direction,

tion, a power of 13 influences the sea, and we have *spring* tides; but at the quarters of the moon, the two luminaries counteract the attractions of each other, so that the sun's power of 3 being taken from the moon's of 10, leaves only 7 operating upon the sea, and *neap* tides take place.

A tumbler filled with water may be whirled by a string vertically round the head, without any danger of the water falling out of it. Those parts of the earth that come successively *opposite* to the moon, perform a much larger circle round the centre of gravity than the parts immediately *under* the moon: hence the waters opposite the moon are thrown off, as it were, by their centrifugal motion, and rise above the common level, as well as the waters exposed to the moon's immediate attraction. Thus two tides are produced in 25 hours, opposite to each other; and by the Earth turning through those protuberances, its waters rise and fall.

The sun would produce two small but similar tides, if the earth had no moon; therefore, at the full of the moon, the sun's centrifugal tide being reinforced by the moon's attraction, and the moon's centrifugal tide being also increased by the sun's attraction, spring tides take place at the full as well as at the change of the moon.

There are, however, frequently streams or currents in the ocean, which apparently contradict the general theory of the tides; such as that between Florida and the Bahama islands, which always runs from south to north. Another current runs constantly from the Atlantic, through the strait of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean; and a third current sets out of the Baltic sea, through the strait between Sweden and Denmark, into the British channel, so that there are no tides in the Baltic. For these and some other phenomena no rational causes have yet been assigned.

CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF MAPS.

A map is a representation of the earth or a part of it. A map of the world is a delineation in perspective of the globe, as it would appear to an eye placed in a particular point. The circles surrounding such a map represent the brass meridian; and the curve lines running across at every ten degrees show the latitude north or south of the equator. The top and bottom are the north and south poles; and the curve lines uniting them are other meridians passing through every tenth degree of the equator, and showing the longitude east or west from the first meridian. The straight line intersecting these meridians, and passing through the centre, is the equator, or equinoctial; at proper distances from which, on each side, are curve lines representing the tropics and polar circles.

Maps and charts, especially the latter, are sometimes drawn on what is called *Mercator's Projection*, which is particularly of use to navigators. In these the meridians and parallels are straight lines, and the former equi-distant from each other. The degrees of longitude in every parallel are the same, while the degrees of latitude are all unequal, being lengthened towards the poles.

The north is generally placed at the upper part of maps; the south at the bottom, opposite the north; the east is consequently on the right hand, and the west on the left. Where this rule is not followed, a fleur-de-lis is usually placed on some part of the map, pointing towards the north, by which the other points may be easily known. The outermost of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude and longitude; by means of which, and the scale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distance, &c. of places may be found. Thus, to find the distance of two places, suppose London and Paris, by the map, we have only to measure the space between them with the compasses, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which shows that London is 210 miles distant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or south, east or west from each other, we have only to observe the degrees on the meridians and parallels; and, by turning these into miles, we obtain the distance without measuring.

In maps, the land is distinguished from the sea by a thick shadow made of short small strokes, to represent the shores or coasts. Mountains are imitated in the form of little rising hillocks. Forests and woods are represented by a collection of little trees. Rivers are described in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or spring. Sea is generally left as an entire space, except where there are rocks, sands or shelves, currents of water, or wind, described. Rocks are sometimes made like little points sticking up sharp in the sea. Sands or shelves are denoted by a number of little points placed in the shape of those sands, as they have been found to lie in the ocean by sounding or fathoming the depths. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expressed by figures denoting fathoms. Currents of water are described by several long crooked parallel strokes. The course of winds is represented by the heads of arrows pointing to the coast towards which the wind blows.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

There is scarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this sort of measure: not only those of separate kingdoms differ, but those of the same country vary in the different provinces. The following is Dr. Halley's account of the miles of several countries compared with the English.

The English statute mile consists of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

The Scotch and Irish mile is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile English.

The Dutch, Spanish, and Polish, about $3\frac{1}{2}$ English.

The German is more than 4 English.

The Swedish, Danish, and Hungarian, from 5 to 6 En.

The Russian verst is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile Eng.

The Turkish, Italian, and old Roman lesser mile, is nearly one English.

The Arabian, ancient and modern, about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The French common league is near 3 English; and

The English marine league is 3 English miles.

A NEW AND
COMPLETE SYSTEM
OF
G E O G R A P H Y.

PART I.

EUROPE.

CHAP. I.

PRELIMINARY AND GENERAL REMARKS—SITUATION, BOUNDARIES—EXTENT—NAMES—SEAS,
FISHERIES—LAKES—RIVERS—MOUNTAINS—CLIMATE AND SOIL—POPULATION—RELIGION—
FORMS OF GOVERNMENT—DIVISIONS, &c.

WE have selected this interesting portion of the globe as the subject of our primary description, it being that which in so many respects claims our attention, and attracts our notice. If we compare Europe with the other quarters of the world, we shall find that, with respect to mental endowments, and the exertion of the intellectual faculties, its inhabitants claim a vast pre-eminence. Here the human mind has made the greatest progress towards improvement; and here the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the sciences, both military and civil, have been carried to the greatest perfection. Hence the European literati are more extensive and deep in their researches, the mechanics are more ingenious and expeditious in their contrivances, the military more skilful and intrepid in their operations, and the legislators more equitable and liberal in their decisions, than those of either Asia, Africa, or America.

On this topic a very learned and ingenious writer makes the following remarks. Having premised that in Greece the human mind seemed to have duly conceived and exerted its powers in the invention and improvement of such arts as were conducive either to pleasure or utility, he observes that what Greece is in this point of view with re-

gard to Europe, Europe itself is with regard to the other divisions of the earth; and concludes with this reflection, "That as ancient Greece was distinguished above all the rest of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political constitution; so has Europe in general been remarkable for smaller deviations, at least, from the laws of nature, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world."

Situation, Boundaries, &c.—Europe is situated between the 10th degree west, and the 65th degree of east longitude from London, and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. On the south it is limited by the Mediterranean Sea; on the west by the Atlantic, which contains the most remote European islands, the Azores and Iceland. On the north the boundary is the Arctic Ocean, embracing the remote isles of Spitzbergen and Novaya-Zemlia, or the New Land. Toward the east the boundaries admit of some discussion. The Uralian mountains form a grand natural limit, not extending to the Arctic Ocean; and the river Cara, which flows into the sea of Karskoye, is also admitted as a boundary. The Uralian limit extends to about the 56th deg. of north latitude, to the south of which the grand confines of Europe and Asia have
been

been sought in the petty distinctions of Russian governments. More natural limits might be obtained by tracing the river Oufa, from its source, to its junction with the Belaia; and thence along the Kama to the Volga, which would constitute a striking natural division, to the town of Sarepta; whence a short ideal line, the only one admitted in this delineation, will lead due west to the river Don, which would complete the unascertained boundary; that on the north and west of the Euxine being clear and precise.

Extent.—Europe, in point of extent, is the smallest division of the globe, yielding considerably even to Africa. From the rock of Lisbon in the west, to the Uralian mountains in the east, the length may be about 3300 British miles; and the breadth from Cape Nord, in Danish Lapland, to Cape Matapan, the southern extremity of Greece, is about 2350. The contents in square miles have been estimated with such a diversity of opinion, and the impossibility to gain accurate information is so evident, that it is sufficient to mention the medial number as about two millions and a half*.

Names.—This part of the globe was formerly called by the Romans, as it is at present by the Spaniards and Italians, by the name of *Europa*; but from whence that appellation originated, has not been determined. By the English and French it is styled *Europe*; by the Turks, *Alfrank*, or *Rumelia*; by the Georgians of Asia, *Frankoba*; and by the Asiatics in general, *Frankistan*.

Seas, Fisheries, &c.—One of the most striking and interesting features in a general view of Europe, is the number and extent of the inland seas, justly regarded as chief causes of the extensive industry and civilization, and consequent superiority to the other grand divisions of the globe. Among inland seas the Mediterranean is justly pre-eminent, having been the centre of civilization to ancient and modern Europe. The columns of Hercules marked its western boundary, being the mountain or rock of Abyla, now called Ceuta, and Kalpe in Spain, our present Gibraltar. The length of the Mediterranean is about 2000 miles to its farthest extremity in Syria; but in ancient maps the length has been extended to about 2500 miles. On its northern side open two immense gulfs, that of Venice and the Archipelago; the former being the Adriatic, the latter the Egean sea, of the ancients. From this last a strait, called the Hellespont, conducts to the sea of Marmora, the classical Propontis; and another, now styled the Strait of

Constantinople, the ancient Thracian Bosphorus, leads to the Euxine or Black Sea; which to the north presents the shallow Palus Mæotis, or sea of Azof, the utmost maritime limit of Europe in that quarter. This wide expanse of the Mediterranean is beautifully sprinkled with islands, and environed with coasts, abounding with the most sublime and picturesque features of nature: tides are not perceivable, except in the narrowest streights; but there is a current along the Italian shore, from the west to the east, and towards the African coast in an opposite direction. In the Adriatic the current runs north-west along Dalmatia, and returns by the opposite shore of Italy.

The Mediterranean abounds with fish, many of which are little known in more northern latitudes. The chief fisheries are those of the tunny, of the sword-fish, of the sea-dog, a species of shark, and of the diminutive anchovy. It is also the chief seminary of coral, now known, from the researches of Spallanzani, to be the work of marine insects. This supposed plant is of three colours; the red, the vermillion, and the white: and its greatest height is about eleven inches. It is equally hard in the sea and in the air; and is generally brought up by a kind of net from the depth of 60 to 125 feet.

The Black Sea is said to derive its name from its black rocks, or dangerous navigation. The sea of Azof is replete with mud, whence it was styled *Palus*; or a marsh, by the ancients: it is united to the Euxine by the strait of Caffa, the ancient Cimmerian Bosphorus.

The second grand inland sea of Europe is the Baltic, by the Germans called the Eastern Sea. This extensive body of water opens from the German Sea by a gulf pointing north-east called the Skager Rack; and afterwards passes south, in what is called the Cattegat, to the south-east of which is the sound of Elsinore. The Baltic afterwards spreads widely to the north-east, and is divided into two extensive branches called the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, both covered or impeded with ice for four or five months of the northern winter. The greatest depth of this sea is said not to exceed 50 fathoms. Swedish physiologists assert, that it loses about four feet in extent in the course of a century; and that the water does not contain above one-thirtieth part of salt, whereas other sea water often holds a tenth; this freshness they impute to the quantity of ice: and they also assert, that when the north wind blows, the waters become so fresh, that they may even be employed

* Europe contains, according to Zimmermann, 2,627,574 square miles; whereas the habitable parts of the world, in the other quarters, are estimated at 39,666,806 square miles.

This part of the globe is fuller of cities, towns, villages; and the buildings, in general, more strong, elegant, and commodious, than those of the other parts. The natives are better featured, and better made, than either the inhabitants of Asia or Africa, and are all whites; though their complexions have different degrees of delicacy, according to their situations, and other local circumstances.

for domestic uses. There are no tides in the Baltic, and the fish are few.

The third inland sea of Europe is that called the White Sea, in the north of Russia. The White Sea contains a number of small islands; but the accounts yet given of them have been brief and unsatisfactory.

Among the other maritime divisions may be named the German Sea, so called because it waters the western shores of ancient Germany, from the Rhine to the extremity of Jutland. It is now often styled the North Sea, a term probably adopted by us from the Dutch. It may be regarded as a part of the Atlantic Ocean, terminating at the streights of Dover; whence the British Channel extends to the west. The Bay of Biscay is another large inlet of the Atlantic.

The Bristol Channel is rather the estuary, or wide frith of the Severn. Between Great Britain and Ireland are St. George's Channel on the south, and the Irish Sea in the centre, which leads to the North Channel. That part of the Atlantic which passes between Scotland and the extreme range of the western isles, from Barra to Lewis, has received no distinct appellation, though Pinkerton thinks it might be aptly styled the Hebrudian Channel. To the north of Scotland is the Deucalionian Sea of the ancients; which being considered as extending into and throughout the Baltic, was also styled the Sarmatian.

To the north of Europe, observes the Geographer just mentioned, is the Arctic Ocean, the dismal reservoir of myriads of miles of ice, the very skirts of which, floating in enormous mountains, crowned with brilliant pinnacles of every hue, delight the eye but appal the heart of the mariner. Yet this enormous waste is, in the hand of Providence, a fertile field of provisions for the human race. Here the vast battalions of herrings seem to seek a refuge from numerous foes, and to breed their millions in security. About the middle of winter, emerging from their retreat, they spread in two divisions: one towards the west, which covers the shores of America, as far as the Chesapeake and Carolina; while a third more minute squadron passes the strait between Asia and America, and visits the coasts of Kamtschatka. The most memorable division reaches Iceland about the beginning of March, in a close phalanx of surprising depth, and such extent that the surface is supposed to equal the dimensions of Great Britain and Ireland. They are, however, subdivided into numberless columns of five or six miles in length, and three or four in breadth, followed by numerous sea-fowl, and perceivable by the rippling of the water, and a brilliant reflection like that of a rainbow. In April or May the vanguard of those allotted to the British dominions

reaches Shetland, and the grand body arrives in June; towards the ends of which month, and through that of July, they are in the greatest perfection, a circumstance well known to the Dutch fishers, who then caught that superior sort which formed the grand source of the wealth of the United Provinces. From Shetland one division proceeds towards the east, as far as Yarmouth, where they appear in October. The other brigade passes to the west, along both shores of Ireland. A few stragglers are found at irregular periods, having proceeded beyond their powers of return; but it is generally credited, that millions regain the Arctic Ocean, and deposit their spawn about the month of October.

It would be unnecessary to enumerate the smaller gulfs, the streights, and other minute diversities of the seas; but, as these are best studied in the maps, a few brief hints on a subject generally neglected, in works of this nature, will be acceptable; viz. the large banks, or shoals, supposed to be ridges of submarine mountains, and which, being frequently the resort of cod, and other fish, invite the attention of national industry. The Goodwin Sands, off the coast of Kent, are more dangerous to the mariner than inviting to the fisher; but on the coast of Holland there are many banks which supply excellent fish, as turbot, soal, plaice, &c. Farther to the north is the extensive Dogger bank, stretching south-east and north-west; beginning about 12 leagues from Flamborough Head, and extending near 72 leagues towards the coast of Jutland. Between the Dogger and the Well Bank, to the south, are the Silverpits of the mariners, which supply London with cod, a fish which loves the deep water near the banks, while the flat-fish delight in the shallows. The Ore and the Lemon lie between these banks and the British shores. To the north-east of the Dogger Bank is the Hornriff, a narrow strip extending to Jutland: the Juts-riff, is a sand-bank stretching, like a crescent, from the mouth of the Baltic into the German Sea.

The Mar Bank begins opposite to Berwick, but is only about 15 miles in length: farther to the east extends the Long Fortys, from Buchan Ness to Newcastle; and from 40 to 100 miles distant from the shore. From the coast of Buchan a bank also reaches across the German Sea towards the Juts-riff; while what are called the Montrose Pits, as being in the latitude of that town, though to the east of the Long Fortys, are hollows, from three to four miles in diameter, and from 70 to 100 fathom deep, with a soft muddy bottom, in a bank of gravel, about fifty miles long, under 40 fathom of water.

Lakes.—The chief lakes are Constance in Germany, Geneva and Guarda in Italy, Wener in Sweden,

Sweden, Ladoga and Onega in Russia, Lochabar in Scotland, and Nough in Ireland.

Rivers.—The chief rivers of Europe will be described under the respective countries through which they flow. Of the extensive Wolga far the greater part is included in Europe; the Danube is the next in celebrity, and is followed by the Dnieper or Nieper, the Rhine, and the Elbe. The Thames in England, the Tay in Scotland, and the Shannon in Ireland, are the most considerable in these islands.

Mountains.—The most elevated mountains are the Alps, which are followed in respect to altitude by the Pyrenees, and the extensive ridge which divides Norway from Sweden. The Carpathian mountains, and the chain of Emineh, or Hæmus, are, as well as the Apennines, of inferior extent and height. There are some elevated hills in the highlands of Scotland, and several in Wales: our descriptions of these great features of nature will be found very interesting.

Climate and Soil.—Geography discovers to us two circumstances with regard to Europe, which have had a considerable tendency in giving it the superiority over the rest of the world: first, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and secondly, the great variety of its surface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immense number of mountains, rivers, seas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from each other, is likewise extremely commodious for its inhabitants. These natural boundaries check the progress of conquest or despotism, which has always been so rapid in the extensive plains of Africa and the East: the seas and rivers facilitate the intercourse and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human industry and invention, than the natural unsolicited luxuriancy of more fertile soils.

Europe produces but little gold and silver, and abounds less in precious stones. It contains fewer wild beasts than the other quarters of the globe; but, through the industry of the inhabitants, and the superiority of cultivation, it is more fruitful in, and has a greater abundance of corn, wines, fruits, sheep, oxen, horses, and all kinds of luxuries as well as necessaries. It does not naturally produce sugar or spices, yet its extensive commerce, and the skill of its inhabitants in navigation, render the productions of all the other parts its own.

Population.—The inhabitants of Europe are descended from Javan, the son of Japhet, and grandson of Noah, who established himself in the islands on the western coast of Asia Minor; from whence

it is probable some of his followers passed over into Greece: they were followed by a colony from Egypt, who, in their turn, were succeeded by other adventurers; these compelled the aboriginal possessors to extend their limits; and hence arose that diversity of language, and difference of appearance, which, to this day, distinguish its principal nations.

Great difference of opinion prevails among the learned, as to the existing population of this quarter of the world; though it is generally allowed to be on the increase, notwithstanding the continuance of almost unprecedented havoc by war, and constant emigration. It may be sufficient here to remark, in a general way, that it is somewhat short of 200 millions.

Religion.—The Christian religion prevails throughout Europe, except in Turkey, where a considerable part of the inhabitants are attached to Mahometanism. Wherever the Christian faith has prevailed, knowledge, industry, and civilization have followed. Among the barbarous tribes in the north the progress was unhappily slow; Scandinavia remaining Pagan till the 11th century, and some Slavonic tribes, on the south of the Baltic, till the 13th. It is not above a century ago since the Laplanders were converted, by missions from Denmark. The two principal distinctions are Roman Catholics and Protestants; the former in the south, where the passions are more warm, and the imagination more delighted with splendor; the latter in the north, where the satisfaction of the judgment predominates. Though the Christian religion embraces a variety of modes and forms, its general tendency to promote the supreme felicity of the rational creation must be admitted by every unprejudiced mind.

Governments.—The kingdoms and states of Europe may be considered, first, as despotic monarchies, as those of Russia, and Turkey; secondly, absolute monarchies, as Spain, Denmark, &c.; or limited monarchies, as the Empire of Germany, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, &c. Since the fall of Venice, and the subversion of Switzerland and Holland, scarcely an example occurs of permanent and fixed aristocracy, or the hereditary government of nobles. Of democracy, or, more strictly speaking, elective aristocracy, there is no city now preserves a semblance; while France is a military despotism under the name of an Empire.

Divisions.—To these introductory remarks concerning Europe, considered in general, we subjoin the following table, exhibiting in one point of view, its several parts, continental and insular, with their length, breadth, chief cities, religions, &c. &c.

EUROPE.

9

KINGDOMS.		Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	Distance & Bearing from London.	Religions.
		Miles.	Miles.		Miles.	
British Empire.	England	380	300	London	400 N.	Calvin. Lutherans, &c.
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh . .	270 N. W.	Calvinists, &c.
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin		Calvinists & Papists.
Austrian Empire.	Norway	1000	150	Bergen	540 N.	Lutherans.
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen . .	500 N. E.	Lutherans.
	Sweden	800	400	Stockholm . .	750 N. E.	Lutherans.
	Russia	1500	1200	Petersburgh . .	1140 N. E.	Greek church.
	Prussia	600	350	Berlin	540 E.	Lutherans & Calvinists.
	German States .	500	400	{ Hamburg, } { Munich, &c. }	400 S. E.	{ Papists, { Lutherans, &c.
	Austria	200	150	Vienna	650 E.	Papists.
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600 E.	Papists.
	Hungary	300	200	Buda	780 S. E.	Papists & Protestants.
	Gallicia	320	290	Lemberg . . .	700 E.	Papists & Protestants.
	Holland	150	100	Amsterdam . .	180 E.	Calvinists.
	France	750	550	Paris	200 S. E.	Papists.
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	Papists.
	Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	850 S. W.	Papists.
	Switzerland . .	260	100	Bern, Coire, &c.	420 S. E.	Calvinists & Papists.
	Italy*	400	200	Milan, Rome . .	800 S. E.	Papists.
	Naples	280	120	Naples	870 S. E.	Papists.
	Turkey in Europe	890	680	Constantinople .	1320 S. E.	Mahomet. & Gr. church.

* The States of Italy have been erected into a Kingdom, of which Buonaparte was crowned King, March 17, 1805; and in 1809 the States of the Church were secularized and added to it.

Exclusive of the BRITISH ISLES before mentioned, Europe contains the following principal ISLANDS.

ISLANDS.		Chief Town.	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean .	Iceland	Skalholt . .	Denmark
	Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Lapland, Femeren, Mono, Bornholm } Gothland		Diuto.
Baltic Sea	Oscl, Dagho, Aland		Sweden.
	Usedom, Wollin		Russia.
	Ivica		Prussia.
Mediterranean Sea . .	Majorca	Ivica	Spain.
	Minorca	Majorca . .	Diuto.
	Corsica	Port Mahon .	Diuto.
	Sardinia	Bastia . . .	France
	Sicily	Cagliari . .	King of Sardinia.
	Malta	Palermo . .	King of 2 Sicilies.
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice	Lusiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Leucadia	Valetta . .	Great Britain.
	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mitylene, Schio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece.	Cephalonia .	Rep. of 7 Islands.
Archipelago and Levant Seas			Turkey.

CHAP. II.

THE

BRITISH EMPIRE.

THE same motives which prompted us to select Europe, at the beginning of our work, might here be adduced for introducing these islands thus early to the notice of our readers; and, indeed, if we consider our insular situation, excluded by natural barriers from continental adjunction, and cut off, as it were, by the great Atlantic, from the rest of mankind, these islands seem the first to present themselves to our notice: if, added to these, we contemplate this empire as the fountain of commerce, the seat of learning and the arts, and the country, of all others, the most favoured with the blessings of liberty and a mild constitution, we shall, without partiality, decide that this is the first nation in the universe, and therefore demands our primary attention.

Name.—It is generally allowed that the Phœnicians were the first discoverers of these islands, who called them *Bratanack*, or the *Land of Tin*: this, says Rapin, is confirmed by the Grecians calling Cornwall and the islands of Scilly *Cassiterides*, which in their language has the same signification. Hence it is probable, that its ancient name, *Britannia*, was classically given to it by its Roman

colonists from the Phœnician word above mentioned.

Situation, Extent, &c.—The United Kingdoms extend from 50 to 62 degrees of north latitude, and between 2 degrees east, and 10 degrees west longitude; being about 700 miles long (including the Scottish islands), and 600 broad. They are bounded on the east by the German Ocean, on the south by the English Channel, and on the west and north by the Atlantic Ocean.

Divisions.—The following table will most readily shew this particular.

	Length.	Breadth.	Sq Miles.	Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
England	360	300	50,210	40	8,802,032	London.
Wales	130	96	8,125	12	544,375	Carmarthen.
Scotland	270	160	27,794	33	1,607,760	Edinburgh.
Ireland	280	160	30,370	32	5,000,000	Dublin.

ENGLAND.

SECTION I.

Name—Boundaries—Divisions—Description of the several Counties, Chief Towns, &c. &c.

Name.—**T**HE most opulent and important division of the empire, is that which has, since the days of Bede, been distinguished among the European nations by the name of *Anglia*, or *England*: most writers conceive it to have originated from the Angles, a nation of the Cimbric Chersonesus, or modern Jutland, who conquered a considerable portion of the country.

Boundaries.—It is bounded on the east by the German Ocean; on the south by the English Channel; on the west by St. George's Channel, and Wales; and on the north by the Cheviot Hills, the river Tweed, and an ideal line falling south-west down the Frith of Solway. The number of inhabitants to a square mile is about 192.

Ancient and Modern Divisions.—When the Romans entered Britain, they found the country divided among a number of small tribes; and with their usual policy they established large provinces. *Britannia Prima* comprised the whole southern part of England, as far as the Severn and the Thames. *Britannia Secunda* corresponded to modern Wales. *Flavia Cæsariensis* extended from the Thames to the Humber: this was a noble province, receiving its denomination from the imperial house of Vespasian, and his two successors, under whom some of the most important conquests were achieved. The province of *Maxima Cæsariensis* reached from the Humber to the Tyne, and from the Mersey to the Solway. In the times of the Romans, about thirty eminent cities, or rather towns, are enumerated, about nine of which are denominated colonies, though none of them could be of much importance.

The

The next division of the country was made by the Saxons, who, under different leaders, established what is generally called the *Heptarchy*, or seven kingdoms, which that word implies. The following table presents a more complete idea of the manner into which it was divided.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. KENT comprehended
the county of | } Kent. |
| 2. SUSSEX, or the South
Saxons, | { Sussex.
Surrey. |
| 3. EAST ANGLES, | { Norfolk.
Suffolk.
Cambridgeshire, with the
Isle of Ely. |
| 4. WESSEX, or the West
Saxons, | { Cornwall.
Devonshire.
Dorset.
Somerset.
Wilts.
Hants.
Berks. |
| 5. NORTHUMBERLAND, | { Lancashire.
Yorkshire.
Durham.
Cumberland.
Westmoreland.
Northumberland and the
parts of Scotland to the
Frith of Edinburgh. |
| 6. ESSEX; or the East
Saxons, | { Essex.
Middlesex.
Hertfordshire in part. |
| 7. MERCIA. | { Gloucester.
Hereford.
Warwick.
Worcester.
Leicester.
Rutland.
Northampton.
Lincoln.
Huntingdon.
Bedford.
Buckingham.
Oxford.
Stafford.
Derby.
Salop.
Nottingham.
The rest of Hertford. |

into SHIRES, so denominated from a Saxon word, signifying parts cut off, or divisions. They are also denominated COUNTIES, as having been each governed by a distinct *Ealdorman*, corresponding with the Latin word *Comes*, or *Count*; and sometimes translated *Consul*, by those Anglo-Saxon authors who wrote in Latin. After the Danish conquest, this officer was known by the appellation of *Earl*, from the Danish term *Iarl*; which, like the word *Baron*, in its original acceptation, implied simply, by way of distinction, A MAN! In the 11th century these titles became hereditary dignities; and the government of the shire devolved upon the Earl's deputy, the *Vice-Comes*, *Shire-reeve*, Sheriff, or manager of the shire. The extensive county of York was divided into three parts, implied in the Saxon word *Trythings*, and now corruptly called Ridings.

Alfred also was the author of the subdivisions of counties into hundreds and tythings, now seldom mentioned except in legal proceedings and topographical descriptions. Probably the hundred originally contained a hundred manors, or rather farms; while the tything was restricted to ten. The capitals of the several Heptarchic kingdoms were varied at the will of the sovereign. London, which belonged to the East Saxons, maintained its Roman fame and eminence; but, on the termination of the Heptarchy, Winchester was regarded as the capital of England.

Domesday Book, which was compiled in the time of William the Conqueror, excludes the three counties of modern Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmoreland, which were then regarded as part of Scotland. Durham is represented as the patrimony of St. Cuthbert, and a province of ecclesiastical jurisdiction; and Lancashire is arranged under the divisions of Yorkshire and Cheshire. But, in the latter Norman period, the northern limits were extended to their present circuit; Cumberland and Westmoreland were wrested from the Scots, and the provinces north of the Humber were completely incorporated: since which time, little or no alterations have taken place.

England is divided into 40 counties, or shires, of which the following table presents an accurate outline. The authorities consulted are, the returns to Parliament under the Population Act of 1801, and the reports to the House of Lords on the Inclosure Bill in 1805, together with valuable information selected from the excellent topographical works recently published, added to several private documents in the possession of the editor.

It is asserted by ancient authors, that the great Alfred instituted the first division of England

COUNTIES.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	Parishes.	Market Towns.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Members to Parliam.	Chief Towns.
Northumberland	64	48	1809	70	9	26,518	157,101	8	Newcastle.
Cumberland	80	40	1292	90	12	21,573	117,230	6	Carlisle.
Westmoreland	40	40	722	32	7	7,897	41,617	4	Kendal.
Durham	35	34	758	113	10	27,195	160,361	4	Durham.
Yorkshire	100	80	6000	563	40	168,439	858,892	30	York.
Lancashire	74	40	1766	62	21	114,270	672,731	14	Lancaster.
Derbyshire	50	38	845	136	11	31,822	161,142	4	Derby.
Nottingham	50	25	774	180	9	25,611	140,350	8	Nottingham.
Lincoln	77	48	2787	630	32	41,395	208,557	12	Lincoln.
Leicester	40	50	816	200	12	25,992	130,081	4	Leicester.
Rutland	15	12	200	50	2	3,274	16,356	2	Oakham.
Northampton	60	22	964	330	11	26,665	131,757	9	Northampton.
Warwick	50	35	984	150	13	40,847	208,190	6	Warwick.
Cheshire	50	30	1056	86	13	34,482	191,751	4	Chester.
Stafford	60	38	1220	150	20	45,198	239,153	10	Stafford.
Salop	50	42	1328	170	13	31,182	167,639	12	Shrewsbury
Worcester	30	20	674	152	12	26,711	139,333	9	Worcester.
Gloucester	65	25	1250	280	27	46,457	250,809	10	Gloucester.
Hereford	38	35	937	176	8	17,003	89,191	8	Hereford.
Monmouth	24	20	531	127	7	8,948	45,582	3	Monmouth.
Berkshire	40	39	774	148	12	21,195	109,215	9	Reading.
Oxford	48	26	703	207	13	20,599	109,620	9	Oxford.
Bucks	50	16	810	185	15	20,443	107,444	14	Aylesbury.
Bedford	33	18	400	124	10	11,888	63,393	4	Bedford.
Huntingdon	26	20	380	78	6	6,841	37,568	4	Huntingdon.
Cambridge	40	25	781	164	9	16,139	89,346	6	Cambridge.
Suffolk	30	58	1566	575	28	32,253	210,431	16	Bury.
Norfolk	70	45	1700	660	33	47,617	273,371	12	Norwich.
Middlesex	25	14	280	183	6	112,912	818,129	8	London.
Hertford	63	28	472	170	19	17,681	97,577	6	Hertford.
Essex	46	40	1936	415	24	38,371	226,437	8	Chelmsford.
Kent	36	40	1306	408	30	51,585	307,624	18	Maidstone.
Sussex	70	28	1461	342	18	25,272	159,311	28	Chichester.
Surry	37	27	811	140	15	46,072	269,043	14	Southwark.
Hants	42	38	1894	253	30	38,345	219,656	26	Winchester.
Dorset	50	27	1210	248	22	21,437	115,319	20	Dorchester.
Wilts	54	34	1283	304	25	29,462	185,107	34	Salisbury.
Somerset	68	47	1549	480	29	48,040	273,750	16	Bristol.
Devon	73	63	2500	398	37	57,955	343,001	26	Exeter.
Cornwall	90	25	1184	161	37	32,906	188,269	44	Launceston.

From this outline we shall proceed to give a farther description of each county, with the principal cities, towns, &c. &c.

NORTHUMBERLAND,

The most northern county of the kingdom, is bounded on the north by Scotland. It contains, according to the return to the House of Lords in 1805, 1,157,760 square statute acres, about 800,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. This county is fertile towards the sea, and has great quantities of sheep fed on the mountains; but its peculiar wealth arises from the coal-trade, which is a never-failing nursery for some of the best seamen in our navy: the quantity exported may be fairly estimated at 1,000,000 of chaldrons annually; and the number of persons employed in this trade on

the river Tyne, in 1792, was 38,500. The chief places are,

1. * *Newcastle-upon-Tyne*, an ancient borough and sea-port town, so called from a castle erected here by William the Conqueror, as a check upon the Scots. It is situated in the centre of the coal-mines of Northumberland and Durham; and in all parts of the neighbourhood are seen large carts loaded with coals, and moving towards the port on inclined planes without the help of horses, to the surprise of the stranger. The town is large and populous; and the elegant shops and crowded streets recal the idea of London. Great improvements have recently been made here by the pulling down of old houses and many narrow parts, and the erection of several new streets, together with an elegant and commodious new market. The

upper

upper or northern part of the town is by far the most pleasant, being inhabited by the higher classes, and has several new, spacious, and well built streets. The suburb of Gateshead, which is generally reckoned a part of this town, is joined to it by a well built bridge across the Tyne, similar to that of Southwark to London. This bridge was erected in 1775, and consists of nine elliptical arches; it formerly was built of wood, and afterwards of stone, which was carried away by a great flood. Among the public buildings of this borough we first notice the Exchange, which is a noble and magnificent structure in an open part of the town, and contiguous to the river and custom-house; and between the water and the town wall is one of the most spacious and commodious quays in the kingdom, finely wharfed up with free-stone. The Keelman's hospital deserves notice, merely because it was erected and is still solely supported by small subscriptions from the daily labour of the keelmen, or coal-workers, for the reception of the sick or hurt of their community. Here are, including Gateshead, 5 parish churches: that of St. Nicholas, the mother church, is a curious fabric built by David king of Scotland. This town can also boast several charitable institutions: there are 4 charity-schools for educating 300 children, a well endowed and extensive infirmary, an hospital for lunatics, and a small lying-in hospital. Besides its immense coal-trade, it exports pickled salmon, lead, butter, and hams, and has several extensive glass-houses, iron-works, potteries, soap-works, and a grindstone manufactory. It is governed by a mayor, sheriff, and 12 aldermen, and has sent 2 members to parliament ever since the reign of Edward I.; being one of the most ancient and opulent corporations in the kingdom. According to the return under the Population Act in 1801, this town contained 4199 houses, and 36,963 inhabitants*. It is 276 miles from London.

2. *Berwick-upon-Tweed* is a corporate town and county of itself, situated on the borders of Scotland, 64 miles north of Newcastle, and was formerly much more extensive than at present. The town is well-built, and has several elegant houses and spacious streets, with a commodious town-house and neat church. The bridge over the Tweed, which connects it with its suburb of Tweedmouth, is 947 feet long, and consists of 15 arches. The town is fortified in the modern style, and has a governor, vice-governor, &c. being considered the key of England on the east side. It exports vast quantities of corn, eggs, wool, &c. but the principal trade is derived from its salmon-fishery, esteemed superior to any in the kingdom. It is well supplied with all kinds of provisions. In

1801 this town, including Tweedmouth, contained 1316 houses, and 10,645 inhabitants.

3. **North Shields*, so called on account of its situation on the north banks of the Tyne, is 8 miles east from Newcastle. This place, fifty years ago, was composed of a few dirty fishing huts; but now it is erected into a large and populous town, with wide and airy streets. An elegant range of buildings, which overlook the river, called Milburn Place, and a neat square, have been built. The trade keeps pace with the increasing population; and it may be said to vie with Newcastle, having upwards of 400 vessels belonging to it. Under the late act it was returned as containing 891 houses, and 7280 inhabitants.

4. *Alnwick*, on the river Alne, 34 miles north from Newcastle, is a populous and well built town, and has a stately and venerable castle, the seat of the noble family of Percy, Duke of Northumberland. This town contains 735 houses, and 4721 inhabitants.

5. *Hexham*, situated on the river Tyne, is a populous though not a handsome town. The streets are narrow and ill built, but have the advantage of good water. It contains 712 houses, and 4565 inhabitants.

6. *Morpeth*, a borough town, 15 miles north from Newcastle, is tolerably well built, and contains some good houses. The quarter sessions for the county are held here. It contains 413 houses, and 2591 inhabitants.

CUMBERLAND,

On the south-west of Northumberland, contains 970,000 acres, about 500,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The climate is sharp and salubrious; but the soil is not fertile, consisting chiefly of bleak mountains and barren moors. It produces coal, lead, lime-stone, and a valuable substance called *wad*, or black lead. Its chief towns are,

1. *Carlisle*, situated on the river Eden, an ancient and opulent city; its name is derived from the Saxon words *Caer Lyel*, or "a city near a wall," from its contiguity to the great Roman wall. It has greatly increased within the last fifty years in size and population; and many of the old streets and houses have been taken down, and new ones erected on their scite; yet much more remains to be done. Here are two parish-churches; one of which is collegiate, and contains several curious paintings, under each of which is a short distich in monkish rhyme; the other church has lately been rebuilt in an elegant manner, and is an ornament to the city. The public buildings are old and rather mean; and the bridges over the

* Those towns which are marked with an asterisk, are known to have considerably increased since that time.

Eden are old-fashioned and narrow. The principal manufactures are printed cottons, checked linens, hats, whips, and fish-hooks. It is governed by a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, and 24 common-council, and sends two members to parliament. It stands 305 miles N. W. from London; and contains 1420 houses, and 10,875 inhabitants.

2. *Whitehaven*, so called from the white cliffs near the bay, is a rich and populous town. Two hundred and fifty years ago it contained only six houses; but now, principally through the patronage of the Lowther family, and the great increase of its coal-trade, it contains 1776 houses, and 8742 inhabitants.

3. *Workington*, a sea-port town, situated at the mouth of the river Derwent, has several salt-works, a salmon fishery, and a great export coal-trade to Ireland, in which upwards of 100 vessels are employed. It contains 1160 houses, and 5716 inhabitants.

4. *Penrith*, a town which was long claimed, and continued a long time in the possession of the Scots, contains a handsome church mostly new-built. Its principal manufacture is printed waist-coat pieces. It contains 670 houses, and 3801 inhabitants.

5. *Cockermouth*, a borough town, with 417 houses, and 2865 inhabitants.

6. **Aldston Moor*; situated in a mountainous country, has greatly increased of late years by the discovery of valuable lead-mines; and in 1801 had 316 houses, and 3626 inhabitants.

WESTMORELAND,

To the south of Cumberland; contains 462,080 square acres, about 200,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. It has a healthy but sharp air; its name is descriptive of the nature of the country, being bleak and mountainous. Vast herds of the small Scotch breed of cattle are fed on the fells; and its hams are in great estimation. The chief towns are,

1. **Kendal*, by far the most opulent, best built, and populous town in the county, is sometimes called *Kirkby in Kendale*, (i. e. "a church in a dale,") from its being situated in a pleasant valley on the banks of the river Ken. The houses are handsome, and covered with blue slate; and it has several neat public buildings. Its principal trade arises from the manufacture of coarse woollens, druggets, worsted stockings, and serges. Within the last twenty years this town has greatly increased in commercial consequence and population, principally through the exertions of the people called *Quakers*, a great number of which persuasion reside here; and by inland navigation it has communication with the metropolis and all the prin-

cipal trading towns in the kingdom. The town of Millthorp, 8 miles distant, may be reckoned the port of Kendal, as vessels of burden can ride little farther up the river than here; but it is navigable for small craft up to the town. In 1801 the number of houses was 1349, and the inhabitants 6892.

2. *Appleby*, the county-town, and place where the assizes are held, is neither rich nor beautiful, and contains nothing worthy particular notice. It consists of two parishes, in which are 259 houses, and 1619 inhabitants.

3. *Lonsdale*, or, as it is commonly called, *Kirkby*, is pleasantly situated on the river Lone, over which it has a handsome bridge. The church is a noble structure; and the streets are spacious, with good houses, covered with blue slate. It contains 254 houses, and 1283 inhabitants.

4. *Kirby Steven* consists principally of one street, indifferently built; the market is good, and the trade chiefly in stockings. It contains 200 houses, and 1141 inhabitants.

DURHAM,

To the east of Westmoreland, contains 610,000 square acres, of which about 500,000 are in a cultivated state. The eastern and southern parts are fertile; and the western and northern abound in mines of lead, iron, and pit-coal. The chief places are,

1. *Durham*, an ancient city, pleasantly situated on the river Were, which winds round it in the form of a horse-shoe, and renders it peninsular. Its name is said to have been derived from its situation; *Dun Holme*, "a hill surrounded by water." The city is about a mile square; and the cathedral and castle stand upon an eminence, having an extensive prospect, surrounded by the old city walls, the slope from thence to the river being beautifully wooded and finely ornamented. Soon after the Saxons settled in England, and were converted to Christianity, some of their kings gave this county to St. Cuthbert, whose shrine for ages drew numerous devotees to the cathedral of this city, which is still the chief ornament of the town. It is supposed to have been first built in 995, at least the lower part, which belongs to what is called the Saxon form of architecture; but it has undergone many alterations, and been partially rebuilt. So late as the year 1775, some parts were found in so ruinous a state; that they were obliged to be thoroughly repaired. Beside the cathedral, this city has six parish-churches; also two Roman Catholic chapels, a Quaker, Presbyterian, and an elegant new Methodist meeting-house. Here are three bridges over the Were; that on the south side is of elegant modern architecture. The market-place is a large and well built square, having in the centre

centre a fountain of excellent water finely ornamented. This city is governed by a mayor, aldermen, &c. and has sent members to parliament since the reign of Charles II. In 1801 it contained 1024 houses, and 7530 inhabitants.

2. * *Sunderland*, 13 miles from Durham, is situated at the mouth of the Were, and is a large and populous sea-port. The houses are in general well built; and several of the streets are 90 feet wide in the new or upper part of the town; but parallel with the river they are narrow and dark. At the western extremity of the town is a bridge of cast iron, with a single arch: it is 100 feet high, and 236 feet long; so that any vessel navigating the river can pass under it with her top-masts up. It was built under the inspection of R. Burden, Esq. in 1795. Notwithstanding the great trade of this place, the harbour is too shallow for large vessels: to remedy this a large and beautiful pier, nearly 200 yards in length, has been erected. This town has been greatly enriched by the coal-trade: the number of persons employed in the various branches of this traffic on the river Were, in 1792, was 26,250. In the neighbourhood are several well built and beautiful villages, which vie in population with some of the best towns in the county. Besides its coal-trade, in which it ranks next to Newcastle, here are extensive salt-works, glass-houses, potteries, and copperas works. In 1801 it contained 1365 houses, and 12,734 inhabitants, exclusive of 1249 seamen belonging to this port.

3. * *South Shields*, so called on account of its situation on the southern banks of the Tyne, and in opposition to the north town of that name, enjoys its full share of the advantages resulting from its proximity to Newcastle and the coal-pits, some of the largest colliers loading here. It is also noted for its salt-works; upwards of 200 pans being constantly employed. The town is not handsome, consisting principally of a long, narrow, crooked street, full two miles in extent; though it is considerably improved of late years. It contained, in 1801, 1260 houses, and 8108 inhabitants.

4. *Darlington*, a neat and populous market-town, 18 miles south from Durham, situated near the confluence of the small river Skerne with the Teese, in the midst of one of the most fertile countries in the north; the produce of which being brought to this place to be disposed of, renders it one of the first markets for corn, cattle, &c. in England. It has a handsome church, and a large diaper manufactory. It contains 864 houses, and 4670 inhabitants.

5. *Stockton-upon-Teese*, so called from its being situated near the estuary of that river, is a handsome and beautiful sea-port, having a good coasting

trade, particularly in butter, bacon, hams, and lead, for the London market. It has an elegant town-house, and modern church, and several sail-cloth and other manufactures. It contains 527 houses, with 4009 inhabitants.

6. *Barnard-Castle*, an ancient market-town, with a venerable castle built by Barnard Baliol; great grandfather of John Baliol, king of Scotland, from whom it is named. The town has undergone great improvement within the last three years, being paved with broad flag-stones, and having several old ruinous buildings removed. The church is old and incommensurable; but there is a beautiful octagon colonnade, called the Cross, which is used as a stand for the market-people. Here is an old bridge over the river Teese into Yorkshire, which unites the town. It contains 324 houses, and 3066 inhabitants.

YORKSHIRE,

To the south of Durham, is double the size of any other in the kingdom. From its great extent it has been distributed into three divisions, called *Ridings*†, which we shall adopt, beginning with

THE NORTH RIDING.

This division comprehends the whole of the northern part of the county, from east to west, down to the city of York in the centre. It contains 1,311,187 acres of land, nearly 900,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. It has a variety of soil; being generally bleak and mountainous, interspersed with beautiful dales and bottoms of great fertility. The district called *Clèveland*, on the western side of the eastern moors, has an excellent soil, and is very productive. It has little or no manufactures, being famous for its lead mines in the western parts, and for the production of butter, hams, and bacon, for the London market. The chief towns are,

1. *Whitby*, a large sea-port, situated at the mouth of the river Esk. It is of great antiquity, and has a considerable trade. The houses are tolerably built of stone; and it has a neat church and convenient custom-house. It is noted for being the birth-place of that great navigator, Captain Cook, who, by his interesting and arduous voyages, added more to the science of Geography than any other man. It contains 1596 houses, and 7483 inhabitants.

2. *Scarborough*, a borough and sea port town, so called from its situation on a scar, or cliff, is built in the form of a crescent. It has a commodious quay, and one of the best harbours in the kingdom. It has a tolerable trade; but its principal support arises from the great resort of per-

† See page 11.

sons, during the hottest months of summer, to drink the waters, which are purgative and diuretic, and for sea-bathing. It contains 1615 houses, and 6688 inhabitants.

3. *New Malton*, a borough and market-town on the river Derwent, 17 miles from York, is tolerably built, and has three parish-churches: the river is navigable to the town. It has 600 houses, and 3047 inhabitants.

4. *Richmond*, a borough and market-town, on the river Swale, has a venerable castle, built by a nephew of William the Conqueror. Many of the houses are well built of free-stone; and the streets are paved. It contains 529 houses, and 2831 inhabitants.

THE EAST RIDING

Comprehends the south-east part of the county, and contains 819,000 square acres, 600,000 of which are cultivated. The soil is in general fertile; and from hence are exported vast quantities of wool, grain, and other vegetable produce. The chief places are,

1. *York*, an ancient city, which properly belongs to neither of the ridings, but which, for the sake of arrangement, is generally attached to this division; it enjoys its own liberty, and a jurisdiction over 36 villages and hamlets in the neighbourhood on the west side of the Ouse. It is called the Ainstey, or county of the city of York. The chief magistrate has the title of Lord Mayor. The city of York is of great antiquity, pleasantly situated on the river Ouse; it stands in a large open plain, where its cathedral, or minster, is the most striking object. This stately structure is not only the largest Gothic church in England, but may be fairly reckoned equal to any in the universe. It extends in length 524 feet, the breadth of the cross aisle 222, the height of the lantern 180, and the breadth of the east and west fronts 106 feet. The nave, which is the largest of any in the world, excepting that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the west end are two towers, connected and supported by an arch which forms the west entrance, and is reckoned the largest Gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted, and the front of the choir is adorned with statues of all the kings of England from William the Norman to Henry VI.; and here are thirty-two stalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each consisting of one piece of alabaster. Here is also a very neat Gothic chapter-house. Beside the cathedral, it has 23 other parish-churches. The streets are well paved and lighted, and of a tolerable width; but several of the houses are old and built of wood. The city is divided into four wards, and walled, but not fortified with artillery. The

river Ouse from the north passes through it, and divides it into two parts, joined together by a stone bridge of five arches, of which the middlemost is reckoned, for height, breadth, and architecture, to be equal to the Rialto at Venice. The river is navigable for large vessels up to the quays, though it is 60 miles from the sea. Near the cathedral is the assembly-house, which is a noble structure, designed by the late Earl of Burlington. The other remarkable structures are the Guildhall; the statue of King Edgar, who rebuilt the city; and St. Anthony's hall. The market-house, in the street called the Pavement, is a curious piece of architecture, supported by twelve pillars of the Tuscan order; and there is another still larger in a square called Thursday market. In 1801 this city contained 2407 houses, and 16,145 inhabitants.

2. **Hull*, or *Kingston-upon-Hull*, is one of the largest and most opulent ports in the kingdom: it lies low, and was formerly subject to frequent inundation; but that is now remedied by proper drainage and strong embankments. The form of the town is triangular, being seated at the confluence of the rivers Hull and Humber; the streets are tolerably built, and several of them are spacious. It has two churches; that called Trinity or High Church is a spacious beautiful building, the pillars of which are remarkably small, and had, before the Reformation, twelve chantries, in one of which is now a neat library. Here is an exchange, a custom-house, and an engine for making salt-water fresh; also a free-school, with an hall over it, belonging to the merchants, who have founded Trinity-house, in which are maintained many distressed seamen and their widows. The town carries on a great trade in sail-making; but the principal traffic arises from its great Baltic and Greenland commerce. The coast trade is extensive in coals, corn, wool, and manufactures; and Hull supplies the commerce of many northern counties, having not only communication with the Trent, and other branches of the Humber, but with the principal rivers and canals in the kingdom. In 1801 it had 4287 houses, and 27,616 inhabitants.

3. *Beverley*, a handsome and well built borough, is situated on the small river Hull; it has a good trade in malt and tanned leather, and contains 401 houses, and 3401 inhabitants.

4. *Bridlington*, or *Burlington*, a sea-port town, situated on a bay of the German Ocean, is a place of some trade, and has a handsome quay; it contains 687 houses, and 3130 inhabitants.

THE WEST RIDING

Is by far the most extensive of the three, containing 1,568,000 square statute acres, about 1,100,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. This riding is noted for the extent of its manufactures, for which

which it is greatly adapted. The raw materials are abundant; coals abound in every direction; and by its water-carriage, it has the means of conveying its produce to the different coasts, from whence they are exported to all parts of the world. The towns in this division are so numerous, that our limits will permit us to give little more than the names. We notice,

1. **Leeds*, an extensive and populous town, situated on the river Aire, over which it has a handsome stone bridge; it is the largest and most flourishing place in the county. The trade in woollen cloth here is, doubtless, the greatest of any place in the world; and, for the accommodation of the clothiers, here are two spacious halls, besides another for worsted goods: it excels in the coloured and white broad cloths. Here are three churches, together with places of worship for the Baptists, Methodists, and Quakers; and an old Presbyterian meeting-house, erected in 1691, and said to be one of the oldest in England. The streets in the upper part of the town are narrow and crowded; but, in the other parts, are not only broad and spacious, but in many places uniform and elegant. The buildings are chiefly of brick; and the streets are paved much after the manner of London. By means of the rivers Aire and Calder, added to its canal navigation, it has communication with the German ocean on the east, and the Irish sea on the west, together with the principal inland towns in the kingdom. In 1801 it contained 11,258 houses, and 53,162 inhabitants.

2. **Sheffield*, a large manufacturing town, famous for being the greatest mart for hardware and edge-tools, of all descriptions, in the world. The town is constantly enveloped in smoke from its numerous furnaces and founderies: from which circumstance several of the streets are dirty and unpleasant; but others are well built, wide, and spacious. The market-place is extensive and commodious, built by the Duke of Norfolk, who is the proprietor of a great part of this town. It has three churches, all situated on rising ground, which overlook the town, together with commodious places of worship for the Methodists, Quakers, Presbyterians, and Roman Catholics. This place shares with Leeds in all the advantages of inland navigation. In 1801 it contained 6518 houses, and 31,314 inhabitants.

3. **Halifax*, a very ancient, populous, and flourishing town, is seated on the river Calder. Its houses are tolerably well built of stone, with well paved streets. The woollen manufacture has been long established here; it principally excels in shalloons, florentines, serges, mooreens, &c. Here is one of the most elegant and extensive buildings in the world, called the *Piece-Hall*, for the accommodation of the neighbouring manufacturers: it is an oblong square, occupying an area of 10,000

square yards, having 315 distinct rooms for the lodgment of cloth; and is open for sales once a week, from ten till twelve o'clock. In 1801 this town had 1913 houses, and 8886 inhabitants.

4. **Wakefield*, a handsome and beautifully situated borough-town on the river Calder, over which it has a neat stone bridge of nine arches. The houses are well built, and the streets spacious. Here is a venerable Gothic church; and an elegant chapel of ease has been recently erected. Wakefield is generally reckoned the county-town of this riding; being the place where its sessions are held. Like most of the places in its vicinage, it has extensive woollen manufactories. In 1801 it contained 1721 houses, and 8131 inhabitants.

5. **Huddersfield*, a populous town, 14 miles from Wakefield, having an extensive cloth-hall, of a circular form, built in 1765, in which the cloth and wool markets are held every Tuesday. Hither the wool-staplers and manufacturers resort for many miles round; and hence arises the principal commerce of the town, which is indifferently built, with two or three spacious streets. In 1801 it had 1376 houses, and 7268 inhabitants.

6. **Bradford*, situated on a branch of the river Aire, has extensive manufactories of shalloons and stuffs; the houses are built of stone, and mostly covered with slate. Here is a large iron manufactory, employing a great number of hands in its various branches; where, among other things, some cannon are cast. In 1801 this place contained 1317 houses, and 6393 inhabitants.

7. **Keighley*, a large manufacturing town, situated in a hilly district, on two small brooks, which fall into the Aire about a mile below; it has a great share of the cloth manufacture; and in 1801 it had 122 houses, and 5745 inhabitants.

8. *Doncaster*, a pleasant town, situated on the river Don, over which it has two bridges, and from whence it takes its name. Its situation is remarkably inviting; and it is a great thoroughfare. It has a spacious mansion-house, and handsome town-hall, together with several public charities, which do credit to the town. It contains 1186 houses, and 5700 inhabitants.

9. *Rippon*, a handsome and well built borough-town, situated on the river Ure, over which it has a stately bridge of 13 arches. The church is collegiate; and the market-place is one of the finest in Europe. Here are several good endowments, particularly an hospital for old widows, and another for old maids. It contains 509 houses, and 3211 inhabitants.

The other towns in this division are,
Dewsbury, with 900 houses, and 4500 inhabitants,
Bingley 854 4100
Barnsley 710 3606
Pontefract 700 3144

<i>Knaresborough</i>	447 houses, and 3128 inhabitants.
<i>Rotherham</i> . . . 678	3070
<i>Otley</i> 513	2332
<i>Skipton</i> 496	2305

LANCASHIRE,

To the west of Yorkshire, contains 1,130,000 acres of land, about 800,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. From accurate observation it has been ascertained, that this is the wettest district in the kingdom; which is supposed to arise from a lofty ridge of hills, that divide this county from Yorkshire, and screen it from the easterly winds, which otherwise, it is thought, would disperse the spray and vapour arising from its being indented by the Irish sea: but this does not make the climate less wholesome. The natural productions of this county are lime-stone and pit-coal; the latter of which abounds in the middle and southern parts. But its principal wealth and commercial consequence are derived from the unprecedented improvement and extent to which the cotton manufacture in all its branches has been brought; in which it is supposed that not less than 150,000 persons are employed in this county alone. The chief towns are,

1. *Lancaster*, situated near the estuary of the river Lune, is an ancient sea-port, and the county-town of the shire; which, though it is much exceeded in opulence and population by several others in the county, is nevertheless a handsome and well built borough, with neat houses, and spacious and well paved streets. The church is a handsome Gothic structure; and here is a neat chapel of ease, to which a new steeple has been recently erected. Its harbour is of moderate size; and the trade is principally with the West Indies and America. Here is a long fine quay, on which a noble suite of warehouses are erected. The castle is said to have been built in the reign of Edward III. and is now the place where the assizes are held, and the county gaol. This town has a new and elegant bridge, of five equal arches, over the Lune, which cost £12,000: besides which, it has several excellent charities, and beautiful public edifices. In 1801 it had 3198 houses, and 9030 inhabitants.

2. *Liverpool*, a most extensive borough and sea-port, seated at the mouth of the river Mersey, is generally allowed to approach the nearest to London in wealth, if not in population, of any in the kingdom; being the seat of a vast commerce, which has been continually on the increase since the beginning of the last century, when it was merely a village. It is first mentioned in the reign of William the Conqueror; yet in Leland's time it had only a chapel, the parish-church being that of Walton. But in 1699 it was constituted a distinct parish; since which period may be traced the rapid

increase of the size, population, and commerce of the town. It now contains ten churches, many of which are of elegant modern architecture; and here are handsome places of worship for the different denominations of Dissenters, together with a Jews' synagogue. The other public edifices of this borough are numerous and splendid. The Exchange is a handsome structure of white stone, forming a square, surrounded by piazzas, for the convenience of the merchants in wet weather: above it are several public offices, and two fine ball-rooms. The custom-house is situated at the head of the old dock, and is well furnished with accommodations for its design. Here are many charitable institutions, particularly a large infirmary, built in a healthy situation; and the new prison does credit to the benevolence of the present age, and to that of the inhabitants of this town in particular, being built after the design of the immortal Howard, and is one of the most convenient, airy, and magnificent places of confinement in Europe. The theatre is a large and elegantly finished building, erected in 1772; and at the south end of the town is a beautiful walk, which commands an extensive prospect of the town, river, harbour, sea, and Welsh mountains. The streets of Liverpool in what may be termed the old part, are narrow and ill built; but the public improvements are carrying on with great spirit, and the new streets and houses are constructed in a neat and regular style, being mostly well paved, and lighted during the winter. The town is well supplied with water from the Bootle springs, which are about four miles distant. Among the manufactories may be noticed those of china and earthen ware, watch movements, fine files, salt, iron, and copperas works, and several extensive breweries. There are also near 20 roperies, and 30 windmills in the neighbourhood. The Mersey is here full 1200 yards wide, so that ships of any burden can moor close up to the quays; and its naturally advantageous commercial situation has been improved by art, particularly by the construction of five wet docks, capable of containing 400 vessels in perfect security. Originally the trade of this place was only with Ireland; but several Irish merchants settled here, who soon transferred nearly the whole commerce with the Isle of Man hither. In 1720 salt was first exported; and in 1730 we find the first mention of its ships in the African trade. It soon afterwards became frequented by ships from the Baltic and most other parts of the world; as at this port they were more certain of a return cargo than at any other on the coast, and always sure of salt in the room of ballast. The increasing manufactures of Lancashire created a continual demand for the raw materials from abroad, the trade for which generally centered here. The African trade

at one time was almost exclusively at Liverpool, which brought back West India produce; and these, together, constituted one-twelfth part of the commerce of Great Britain. The number of ships which paid duty at Liverpool in 1757, was 1371; in 1794 they amounted to 4265; and from Midsummer 1805 to Midsummer 1806, the number of ships which entered the different docks of this port was upwards of 6000, and the duty paid amounted to £33,364. The population has fully kept pace with the increasing trade: in 1700 it was about 5000; in 1750, 25,000; in 1775, 40,000; in 1785, 50,000; and in 1801 there were 11,781 houses, and 77,653 inhabitants; since which period some writers have asserted that this town is on the decline, owing to the abolition of the slave trade. But though we are aware of this, and know it suffers equally with the other ports in consequence of the maritime policy of Bonaparte, yet it is a fact, that the buildings have increased, though perhaps not in so great a proportion as in the same number of years preceding. It stands 203 miles N.W. from London, and is governed by a mayor, aldermen, &c.; and sends two members to parliament.

3. **Manchester*, a most flourishing and populous town of great antiquity, having been a Roman fortress, is now the largest town in England, next to London, having many handsome modern streets and elegant houses, which mark the wealth of the inhabitants. Fifty years ago it was reckoned a large town, but it is known to have been more than tripled since that time; the streets are upwards of 600 in number, and they are lighted by 2000 lamps, and guarded by upwards of 200 watchmen. Manchester stands near the confluence of the rivers Irwell and Irk, over the former of which it has three bridges that unite it to Salford, which is generally reckoned a part of this town, one of which is handsomely built of stone, sufficiently wide to admit three carriages abreast. There are also four bridges over the Irk. The collegiate church is a handsome Gothic structure, ornamented with beautiful sculpture, and has a large and powerful organ. There are twelve other churches, some of them having been recently built, of beautiful modern architecture, which greatly ornament the town. Beside the above, here are numerous chapels for the Dissenters, Methodists, Quakers, and Roman Catholics. Among the principal charitable institutions of Manchester may be first noticed the College, or Cheetham's Hospital, an endowment founded 150 years ago by H. Cheetham, Esq. who being remarkably successful in business here, liberally provided for the education and maintenance of forty poor boys; but from the greatly increased value of the estates belonging to the charity, they are now increased to eighty.

Here are also a good free school and library, each of them well endowed. The town-gaol, called the New Bailey, is an extensive building, kept remarkably clean, and situated on a healthy spot. The town also boasts a neat infirmary, dispensary, lunatic asylum, lying-in hospital, &c. &c. Among the numerous manufactures with which it supplies most of Europe, the most important is the cotton-trade in all its branches, and the recent improvement with the admixture of silk, in all of which it is supposed that not less than 30,000 persons are daily employed. Here are two market-places, and several handsome squares. The town is not incorporated, its highest officer being only a constable. It has all the advantages of inland navigation by canals, &c. with which this county and Yorkshire abound, and by which their principal towns have communication with all the large places in the kingdom. The population of Manchester has rapidly increased within the last century: in 1750 it is said not to have exceeded 30,000; in 1790 it was estimated at 60,000; and in 1801 it contained 12,549 houses, and 81,020 persons.

4. **Bolton-le-moor*, so called from its being situated in the midst of dreary moors, has of late years increased in a rapid manner, owing to the introduction of the cotton manufactures, the principal branches of which carried on here are fustians, counterpanes, calicoes, &c. It has a good market; and in 1801 had 3386 houses, and 17,416 inhabitants.

5. *Blackburn*, a large and populous town, which is greatly increased since the introduction of the cotton manufacture. It is situated on the river Derwent, over which it has four stone bridges, and from the blackness of the water of which it is said to take its name. It contains 2332 houses, and 11,980 inhabitants.

6. **Preston* is said to have derived its name from the number of religious houses that were formerly here, and from whence it was called Priests' Town. It is a fine town, seated on the river Ribble, and has a court of chancery, and other offices of justice, for the county palatine of Lancaster. From the gentry many miles round resorting here in winter, and having assemblies, balls, &c. it is vulgarly called *Proud Preston*. The town stands on a rising ground, and commands a delightful prospect; it is very well built, has a handsome town-hall, and a large market-place. Here is a new and extensive prison, on Howard's plan; and on the neighbouring common are frequent horse-races. The cotton trade has been successfully introduced into Preston, in which a great number of hands are employed. Every twentieth year a kind of jubilee is held in this town in the month of August, called the Guild, which continues a month. In 1801

this

this town had 2169 houses, and 11,887 inhabitants.

7. **Wigan*, a large borough, situated on the small river Douglas, has extensive manufactures of checked linens, and the several branches of the cotton trade. The church is a stately edifice, and it has a neat chapel of ease. In 1801 here were 2277 houses, and 10,989 inhabitants.

8. **Warrington*, an extensive town on the river Mersey, has a market well supplied with corn, cattle, and fish. Here is an academy, founded upon an extensive plan, for educating youth in the learned professions. In this town, and the neighbouring villages, sail-cloth is made for the royal navy. Here are also copper-works, sugar-houses, and glass-houses, which furnish the industrious with the means of obtaining a comfortable subsistence. On the banks of the Mersey, which, by means of weirs and locks, is made navigable to Manchester, are paper-mills, gunpowder-mills, oil-mills, iron-forges, and slitting-mills. Some of the streets of Warrington are open and well built; while others are long and narrow, with mean houses, especially at the entrance of the town, though greatly improved of late. In 1801 this town had 2258 houses, in which were 10,567 inhabitants.

9. **Rochdale*, so termed from its situation on the small river Roch, has extensive woollen, cotton, and hat manufactories. It consists principally of one long street, with a neat church built upon a hill, to which is an ascent of 118 steps. In 1801 here were 1672 houses, and 9031 inhabitants.

10. **Bury*, a neat town on the Irwell, nine miles from Manchester, has most extensive cotton works. Here were 1341 houses, and 7072 inhabitants, in 1801.

DERBYSHIRE,

To the south-east of Lancashire, contains about 720,640 acres, 508,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The air is sharp, but salubrious; and the soil is barren on its surface, owing to the great number of hills, mountains, &c. but rich within the bowels of those eminences. The Peak, a lofty part of this county, is much visited on account of some rarities, called the Wonders of the Peak; amongst which is the fine seat of the Duke of Devonshire at Chatsworth. The chief places are,

1. *Derby*, the county-town, so called from having been a park, or shelter for deer, stands on the west side of the river Derwent, over which it has a neat stone bridge of five arches, and is navigable from hence to the Trent. The houses are well built of brick, and covered with flat tiles. The church of All Saints is a handsome building, with a lofty tower; and here are 4 other churches, with chapels for Dissenters, &c. But the principal attraction of the town is the silk-mills, erected on an ingenious

plan from a model brought from Italy. In one of these machines are upwards of 100,000 movements put in motion by a single wheel; and every time the wheel goes round, which is three times in a minute, it works 73,728 yards of silk from the raw material fitted for the warp. Derby has also an extensive porcelain manufactory; and of late years a cotton-mill has been erected; a number of persons are employed in turning vases, urns, &c. of the marble, spar, &c. which abound in the Peak. It sends two members to parliament, and contains 2141 houses, and 10,832 inhabitants.

2. **Chesterfield*, an ancient town, situated in the north-eastern part of the county, on a rising ground between two rivers, formerly belonged to the crown. The principal street is wide and spacious; and the church is a handsome building, in the form of a cross. The silk and cotton manufactures have lately been introduced here, which have tended greatly to the increase of the town, which in 1801 had 895 houses and 4267 inhabitants.

3. **Belper*, an extensive town, which, fifty years ago, was a mere village, but now vies with the best towns in the county, principally through the erection of several large cotton mills, by one of the partners of the late Sir Richard Arkwright. In 1801 it had 831 houses, and 4500 inhabitants.

4. *Wirksworth*, situated twelve miles north from Derby, is seated in the midst of lead-mines in the Peak. Mill and grindstones are found in the neighbourhood, together with veins of anti-mony. Here is one of the most extensive red-lead manufactories in the kingdom. This place contains 660 houses, and 2978 inhabitants.

5. *Ashborn*, on the river Dove, is an ancient town, but contains nothing remarkable. It has 443 houses, and 2006 inhabitants.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE,

To the east of Derby, has 495,360 square statute acres, of which 350,000 are in a state of cultivation. The climate is remarkably dry and healthy; and the soil is in general fertile. The chief towns are,

1. **Nottingham*, a borough pleasantly situated on the ascent of a rock overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about half a mile to the south, over which it has a stately bridge, of nineteen arches, is a large and handsome town. It has three churches; a grand town-house, built on piazzas; a spacious market-place well supplied; a gaol for the town and county; extensive manufactories for weaving frame stockings, and likewise for glass and earthen-ware. The rock on which the town stands is so remarkably soft, that it is capable of being cut out into steps, and other purposes with great ease. The cellars are very good for keeping beer; and the county abounding in barley,

barley, the brewing trade is greatly followed. Here is a house built on the side of a hill, where the family enter at the garret, and descend to the cellar. The streets are spacious and well built; and here is a noble castle, the seat of the New-castle family, the park to which is a favourite walk for the inhabitants of the town. In 1801 here were 4977 houses, and 28,862 inhabitants.

2. *Newark*, a borough-town on the river Trent, is neat and well built, with a handsome market-place, and an elegant town-hall. The church, which is reckoned one of the finest in the kingdom, was erected by Henry IV. and has a lofty spire. Here is a venerable castle, now in ruins, which was built in the reign of king Stephen, and dilapidated in the civil wars of Charles I. who here delivered himself up to the Scots. In this town is a large sacking manufactory; but its chief trade is in malting. It is a great thoroughfare, and has 1376 houses, and 6730 inhabitants.

3. *Mansfield*, an ancient town, situated in the orest of Sherwood. Its principal trade is in corn and malt, with a small manufactory for stockings. It contains 1201 houses, and 5988 inhabitants.

4. *Worksop*, a neat town, consisting of two streets situated in a pleasant valley near the source of the river Ryton. Near this town is the noble seat of the Duke of Norfolk. It contains 639 houses, and 3263 inhabitants.

5. *East Retford*, a borough-town near the river Idle, is well built, and has a good free grammar-school, and neat town-hall. It has a canal to the Trent, and contains 421 houses, and 1948 inhabitants.

LINCOLNSHIRE,

To the east of Nottinghamshire, contains 1,783,680 statute acres, of which about 1,500,000 are in a state of cultivation. The climate in some parts is damp and aguish, while in others it is sharp and healthy; it is particularly distinguished as a grazing country, and is remarkable for rearing all kinds of animals to the greatest size and weight. This county is divided into three divisions, viz. LINDSEY, KESTEVEN, and HOLLAND.

LINDSEY,

The most northern and elevated, contains,

1. *Lincoln*, an ancient city, built on the side of a hill, at the bottom of which runs the river Witham, in three small channels, over which are several bridges. The cathedral was esteemed the pride of Lincoln; for its magnificence and elevation is such, that the monks concluded it would chagrin the devil to look at it; and thence an envious look, by a proverbial expression, is compared to the devil looking over Lincoln. This cathedral was successively brought to perfection by several of its

bishops. Here is the finest and largest bell in England, called Tom of Lincoln, near five ton weight, and about 23 feet in compass, and will hold 424 gallons ale measure. This city formerly had 52 parish-churches; but in the reign of Edward VI. they were reduced to 15, and now the number is 12. The houses of Lincoln are mostly old and ill built; but it is greatly improved of late, owing to a recent act obtained for lighting and paving the streets. In the centre of the old castle, which was built by the Romans, and repaired by the Saxons, is a modern structure, where the assizes are held. The city is a county of itself, and has extensive power and privileges. On the down of Lincoln is sometimes seen that rare bird called the bustard. The country hereabout is very rich and agreeable; the noble tract of Lincoln Heath extending, like Salisbury Plain, above twenty miles. In 1801 here were 1516 houses, and 9398 persons.

2. *Gainsborough*, pleasantly situated on the east bank of the noble river Trent, which brings vessels of considerable size up to the town. Here is a fine bridge into Nottinghamshire, erected in 1797. The town is clean, well paved, and lighted: it has an elegant new church, rebuilt lately at the expence of the inhabitants, with a handsome pulpit-cloth of crimson velvet embroidered with gold, the materials for which were taken at the battle of Dettingen. It has a great coasting trade with the metropolis, in the produce of the midland counties. In 1801 here were 1064 houses, and 4506 inhabitants.

3. *Louth*, situated on the river Lud, is a neat town, mostly built of brick and covered with tiles; excepting a few at the entrance with clay. It has a handsome church, with a lofty spire; and a well attended market. It contains 893 houses, and 4234 inhabitants.

KESTEVEN,

Lies on the western side of the county. The chief towns are,

1. *Stamford*, an ancient borough on the river Welland, on the borders of Northamptonshire, has several well built houses covered with slate. It was anciently much more considerable than at present, having had 14 churches which are now reduced to 6, several of which are handsome structures. Over the Welland is a fine bridge of five arches, at the foot of which stands the town-hall, a neat building; it has also a good theatre, and several charitable endowments. In 1801 it had 797 houses, and 5055 inhabitants.

2. *Grantham*, an ancient borough-town on the river Witham, has many good inns of great resort. It is well built, with several good streets. Here is a fine large church, with a handsome spire, which, by a deception of the sight, seems to stand awry;

it was much injured by lightning in 1797. A free school was built and endowed here by bishop Fox, where Sir Isaac Newton received his first education. It has 605 houses, and 3303 inhabitants.

HOLLAND,

So called from its resemblance to the country from whence it is named, is one continued succession of fens and marshes, some of them drained by canals, and crossed by raised causeways. The chief towns are,

1. *Boston*, on the Witham, which is navigable to Lincoln, is so called from one Botolph, who had a monastery here; and hence it was called Botolph's Town. This port was formerly made staple for wool; and the merchants of the Hans Towns fixed their guild here. It is a pleasant, well built town, and has a good foreign and inland trade. Its church is reckoned the largest without cross aisles in the world. Its tower or steeple is 280 feet high, and has a beautiful octagon lanthorn on the top, which is seen near 40 miles every way, but especially on the sea, as far as the entrance of the dangerous channels called Lynn-deeps and Boston-deeps; so that it is the guide to mariners, as well as the wonder of travellers, and is a magnificent specimen of a fine Gothic taste; having 365 steps, 52 windows, and 12 pillars. The town has a commodious haven, and is plentifully supplied with fresh water, by pipes, from a pond enclosed in the great common, called the West Fenn. This town contains 221 houses, and 5926 inhabitants.

2. *Spalding*, near the mouth of the Welland, has a considerable trade in corn and coals. The houses are neat, and the streets very clean. Great quantities of flax and hemp are grown in the neighbourhood. It contains 712 houses, and 3296 inhabitants.

LEICESTERSHIRE,

South-west from Lincolnshire, according to the report to the House of Lords in 1605, contains 522,540 square statute acres, the greatest part of which is in a state of cultivation, principally for pasturage. The climate is mild and salubrious; and the soil is rich and fertile. It is the principal mart for the hosiery and stocking trade. The chief towns are,

1. **Leicester*, an ancient borough on the river Soar, and by far the largest, best built, and most populous town in the shire, has six parishes, and five churches, all handsome structures. There is an exquisite piece of workmanship in the High Street, in the form of our Saviour's cross. The hospital, built by Henry Plantagenet, Duke of Lancaster, is supported by some revenues of the duchy of Lancaster, so as to be capable of maintaining a hundred aged persons decently. It was rebuilt in 1776, at

his Majesty's expence. There is another near the abbey for six widows. The inhabitants have greatly improved in their manufacture of stockings wove in frames, and return in that article a large sum annually. Before the castle was dismantled it was a noble work: its hall and kitchen still remain entire; and the former is so lofty and spacious, that it is made a court of justice at the assizes. One of the gateways of this place has an arch of curious workmanship; and in the tower over it is kept the magazine for the county militia. In Leicester a parliament was held in the reign of Henry V. where the first law was passed for burning heretics. Many of the streets of this town are narrow, but the market-place is remarkably large and well attended; and here are several elegant public buildings. It has sent members to parliament since the reign of Edward I. In 1801 here were 3205 houses, and 16,953 inhabitants.

2. *Hinckley*, an ancient town near the borders of Warwickshire, was formerly more extensive than at present. It has a considerable manufacture of the coarser kinds of wove and knit stockings. The church is a neat edifice. It contains 949 houses, and 5070 inhabitants.

3. *Loughborough*, eleven miles from Leicester, on the river Stour, over which it has a neat stone bridge; the houses are well built, and the streets spacious: it is a great thoroughfare to the north. The church is an extensive building; and here is a good free school, grammar school, and a charity school for 100 children. This place contains 957 houses, and 4646 inhabitants.

RUTLANDSHIRE,

On the south-east of Leicestershire, is the smallest county in England, containing only 128,000 acres, the greatest part of which is cultivated. It has a pure air and fertile soil, and is beautifully varied with gentle hills and depressions. It has no manufactures. The only place of note is,

Oakham, the county-town, and place where the assizes are held, is situated in the rich vale of Cadmos. It is particularly remarkable for an ancient custom still kept up, viz. that every peer of the realm, the first time he comes through this town, shall give a horse-shoe to nail upon the castle-gate; and if he refuses, the bailiff of the manor has power to stop his coach, and take the shoe from one of his horses. This is now called the order of the horse-shoe; and it is common for the donor to have a large one made, with his name stamped on it, and often gilt. One over the judge's seat in the assize hall, is of curious workmanship. The town has some well built houses; the church is a neat building, with a lofty spire; and here are some well endowed alms-houses. It contains 348 houses, and 1613 inhabitants.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE,

To the south-west of Rutlandshire, contains 617,000 statute acres, most of which are cultivated. The climate is mild, and very salubrious. The chief towns are,

1. *Northampton*, situated upon the Nen, over which it has two bridges. The buildings were handsome, and the town large (having seven parish churches within the walls, and two without), when it was reduced to ashes by a dreadful fire in 1675: Liberal contributions from all parts of the kingdom restored it in a great measure to its original size; and for neatness, beauty, and situation, few towns could equal it. It has four churches, of which the great one, viz. Allhallows, is a handsome edifice, with a stately portico of twelve lofty Ionic columns, and a statue of king Charles II. on the balustrade. It stands near the centre of the town, and at the meeting of four spacious streets. The sessions and assize-house is a very beautiful building of the Corinthian order. The market-place is one of the finest in Europe; and the horse-market is thought to exceed any other of the kind in England. Its most considerable manufacture is shoes, of which great numbers are exported; the next to that, stockings. A county hospital is built here, after the manner of the infirmaries of London, Bristol, Bath, &c. and the river Nen has lately been made navigable up to the town. In 1801 here were 1322 houses, and 7020 inhabitants.

2. *Peterborough*, situated on the river Nen, is reckoned the least city, and the poorest bishopric in England; there being only one parish church, exclusive of the cathedral, which is a noble structure, originally built in the reign of king Edgar. The city is neatly built, many of the houses being regular; and it has a handsome market-house. The trade in wood and corn is considerable. It has 727 houses, and 3449 inhabitants.

3. *Wellingborough*, seven miles from Northampton, on the river Nen; the houses are mostly built of a kind of red stone, produced in the neighbourhood. It has 662 houses, and 3325 inhabitants.

4. *Kettering* is indifferently built; many of the houses being thatched; it has manufactories of lace-working, &c. and contains 641 houses, and 3011 inhabitants.

WARWICKSHIRE,

To the east of Northamptonshire, contains 639,750 square statute acres, nearly 600,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The air is mild and wholesome, being principally reckoned a feeding and dairy county. It has extensive manufac-

tories, which will be noticed in the description of the chief places, of which we mention

1. *Warwick* on the Avon, the county-town, stands in a situation remarkably rocky. It is of great antiquity, and may be approached by four ways, answering to the points of the compass, and cut through rocks. These lead to four streets, which are regular and well-built, and meet in the centre of the town. The walls and cellars are made in the rock. It is supplied with water by pipes from springs half a mile off, and has a noble stone bridge of twelve arches over the Avon. Formerly it had six parish churches, but now only two, both of which are noble fabrics. Here is a castle, the principal ornament of the place, strong both by art and nature. The rock on which it stands is forty feet from the river; but on the north side it is even with the town. From its terrace, which is about fifty feet perpendicular above the Avon, there is a prospect of the river, and a beautiful country beyond it. The apartments of the castle are well contrived, and many of them adorned with original pictures by Vandyke. It was built originally by William the Conqueror. Near the town is Guy's Cliff, a high perpendicular rock, where Guy earl of Warwick is said to have lived as a hermit, after defeating the Danish giant Colbrand. His sword and other accoutrements are still shewn in the castle. The town has little trade, being principally inhabited by gentry. It contains 1010 houses, and 5592 inhabitants.

2. *Coventry*, a very ancient city, is united with Litchfield in Staffordshire, as a bishopric. There are many traditional stories relating to this place, particularly that of Lady Godiva, who, to obtain and perpetuate some privileges, rode naked through the streets; and an annual procession is still made through the town in commemoration of it. This city is large and populous, but many of the buildings are old; and some of them, which are built of timber, project out so much, that in the narrow streets the tops of the opposite houses almost touch. The churches are St. Michael's, Trinity, and St. John's, all handsome structures; and the Protestant Dissenters are a considerable body here. The town-house is worth notice, the windows being of painted glass, representing some of the old kings, who have been benefactors to the city; and here is a spacious market-place. Its chief manufacture is the weaving of ribbons, in which it is supposed not less than 10,000 persons are employed, principally women and children. It contains 2930 houses, and 16,034 inhabitants.

3. **Birmingham*, now one of the first towns in the kingdom, was originally a village, belonging to a family of the same name; whose monuments remain in the old church. This town, in the time of Henry VIII. was inhabited by smiths, cutlers, and

and loriners, now called bit-makers. The extension and improvement of Birmingham originated in a great degree from a speculating adventurer, who introduced the manufacture of gilt buttons, and japanned and enamelled work; but the toy manufacture was known in the reign of Charles the Second. The great manufactory called Soho is situated about two miles from Birmingham, but in the county of Stafford. A very few years ago, it was a barren heath, on the bleak summit of which stood a naked hut, the habitation of a warrener.

Mr. Boulton, who established this great work, joined taste and philosophy with manufacture and commerce; and, from the various branches of chemistry, the numerous mechanic arts he employed, and his extensive correspondence to every corner of the world, was furnished with the highest entertainment as well as the most lucrative employment.

About the year 1745, while resident at Birmingham, Mr. Boulton invented, and afterwards brought to great perfection, the inlaid steel buckles, buttons, watch-chains, &c. which Dr. Johnson mentions in one of his papers in "The World," as becoming fashionable in this country; whilst they were repurchased from France, under the idea of their being the production of that kingdom. But finding great inconvenience for want of room, on Lady-day 1762, Mr. Boulton purchased the lease of this extensive spot, consisting of several acres, upon which a small house and feeble mill were erected for the purpose of rolling metal, to apply the same to such branches of the manufactory established at Birmingham as would tend to diminish expence and labour.

In order to prosecute his designs and improvements, he soon after enlarged and rebuilt those premises, and then transplanted the whole of his manufactory from Birmingham to Soho; and though he had made very considerable additions to these buildings, he found them not sufficient for his great designs; he therefore, in 1764, laid the foundation of the present superb manufactory, which was finished in the following year, at the expence of nine thousand pounds; and to which he gave the name of *Soho*. From that period he began to turn his attention to the different branches of manufacture; and in conjunction with Mr. Fothergill, then his partner, established a mercantile correspondence throughout Europe; by which means the produce of their various articles was greatly extended; and the manufacturer, by becoming his own merchant, eventually enjoyed a double profit. Impelled by an ardent attachment to the arts, and by the patriotic ambition of bringing his favourite Soho to the highest degree of perfection, the ingenious proprietor soon established a seminary of artists for drawing and modelling; and men of

genius were now sought for, and liberally patronized, which shortly led to a successful imitation of the *or moulu*. These metallic ornaments, consisting of vases, tripods, candelabras, &c. by the superior skill and taste bestowed upon them here, soon found their way not only to the admiration of his Majesty, and to the chimney-pieces and cabinets, &c. of the nobility and curious of this kingdom, but likewise to France, and almost to every part of Europe. From this elegant branch of the business the skill of Mr. Boulton led his artists, by a natural and easy transition, to that of the wrought silver; upon which he soon found the necessity of applying to parliament for, and establishing, in 1773, an assay-office at Birmingham. About this time that ingenious art of copying pictures in oil-colours, by a mechanical process, was invented at Soho; and, under the patronage of the above proprietor, was brought to such a degree of perfection as to be taken for originals by the most experienced connoisseurs. This extraordinary piece of art was principally conducted by the ingenious Mr. F. Eginton, which led him to that of painting upon glass, now carried on at his neighbouring manufactory.

Mr. Boulton, finding from experience that the stream of water which had induced him to build a mill, and transplant his manufactory to Soho, was insufficient for its purposes, applied horses, in conjunction with his water-mill; but finding that both troublesome, irregular, and expensive, in 1767 he made a steam-engine, on Savery's plan, with the intention of returning and raising his water about 24 feet high; but this proving unsatisfactory to him, he soon after formed an acquaintance with his present partner and friend, Mr. James Watt, of Glasgow, who in 1765 had invented several valuable improvements on the steam engine, which, in fact, made it a new machine.

The application of this improved steam-engine at Soho, to raise and return the water, extended the powers of the water-mill, which induced Mr. Boulton to rebuild it a second time, upon a much larger scale; and several engines were afterwards erected at Soho for other purposes, by which the manufactory was greatly extended, the source of mechanical power being thus unlimited.

Amongst the various applications of the steam-engine, that of coining seems to be of considerable importance, as by its powers all the operations are concentrated on the same spot; such as rolling the cakes of copper hot into sheets; 2dly, fine-rolling the same cold in steel polished rollers; 3dly, cutting out the blank pieces of coin, which is done with greater ease and rapidity by girls, than could possibly be done by strong men; 4thly, the steam-engine also performs other operations, such as shaking the coin in the bags; and 5thly, it works a number

number of coining machines, with greater rapidity and exactness, by a few boys of 12 or 14 years of age, than could be done by a great number of strong men, without endangering their fingers, as the machine itself lays the blanks upon the die, perfectly concentric with it, and when struck displaces one piece, and replaces another.

The coining-mill, which was erected in 1788, and has since been greatly improved, is adapted to work eight machines, each capable of striking from 70 to 84 pieces of money per minute, the size of a guinea, which is equal to between 30 and 40,000 per hour; and at the same blow which strikes the two faces, the edge of the piece is also struck, either plain, or with an inscription upon it: and thus every piece becomes perfectly round, and of equal diameter; which is not the case with any other national money ever put into circulation.

Such a coining-mill, erected in the national mint, would, in cases of emergency, be able to coin all the bullion in the bank of England, at a short notice, without the necessity of putting dollars, or other foreign coin, into circulation; and by erecting double the number of presses a double quantity may be coined.

It is worthy observation, that the ground of the silver-money coined by this machine has a much finer and blacker polish than the money coined by the common apparatus. The dollars so coined have been for some time, and are now, in general circulation.

In consequence of Mr. Boulton's money being perfectly round, and of equal diameter, he proposed the following coincidence between money, weights, and measures, in the copper coin, part of which has been lately executed for the British government; viz. a two-penny piece to weigh two ounces, and 15 of them to measure two feet, when laid flat in a straight line; one penny to weigh one ounce, and 17 of them to measure two feet; a half penny to weigh half an ounce, and 10 of them to measure one foot; a farthing to weigh a quarter of an ounce, and 12 to measure one foot. This plan of coincidence was prevented from being put into execution by the sudden advance of the price of copper; and since then he has executed a new coinage of copper pieces, the size of which bears the medium between the halfpenny and the penny first mentioned.

In the year 1788 Mr. Boulton struck a piece of gold, the size of a guinea, as a pattern, similar to those in copper; the letters were indented instead of in relief; and the head and other devices, although in relief, were protected from wear by a broad flat border; and, from the perfect rotundity of shape, &c. with the aid of a steel gauge, it may, with great ease and certainty, by ascertaining its specific gravity, be distinguished from any base

metal. Previous to Mr. Boulton's engagement to supply government with copper pence, in order to bring his apparatus to the greatest perfection, he exercised it in coining silver-money for Sierra Leone and the African Company, and copper for the East India Company, and Bermudas. Various beautiful medals of our celebrated naval and other officers, &c. have likewise been struck here from time to time by Mr. Boulton, for the purpose of employing and encouraging ingenious artists to revive that branch of sculpture, which had been upon the decline in this kingdom, since the death of Symons, in the reign of Charles II.

In order to obtain the desired degree of perfection in the manufacture of steam-engines, Messrs. Boulton and Watt found it necessary to erect and establish an iron-foundry for that purpose; and they have accordingly, in partnership with their sons (to whose activity, genius, and judgment, it must be attributed that this great work was begun and finished in the course of three winter months), erected, at a convenient distance, and contiguous to the same stream, at Smethwick, a great and complete manufactory and foundry, into which a branch from the Birmingham canal enters, and thereby the coals, pig-iron, bricks, sand, &c. are brought, and their engines, or other heavy goods, are transported in boats to every part of the kingdom, there being a wet-dock within their walls for four boats to lie.

The plan of this work being well digested and settled previous to laying the first stone, the whole is thereby rendered more complete than such works generally are as arise gradually from disjointed ideas. And, from the great experience of the proprietors, they have applied the power of steam to the boring of cylinders, pumps, &c. to drilling, to turning, to blowing their melting furnaces, and whatever tends to abridge human labour and obtain accuracy; for, by the superiority of all their tools, they are enabled to attain expedition and perfection in a higher degree than heretofore.

In a national view, Mr. Boulton's undertakings are highly valuable and important. By collecting around him artists of various descriptions, rival talents have been called forth, and by successive competitions have been multiplied to an extent highly beneficial to the public. A barren heath has been covered with plenty and population.

A beautiful garden, with wood, lawn, and water, now covers one side of this hill; five spacious squares of building, erected on the other side, supply workshops, or houses, for above six hundred workmen. The extensive pool at the approach to this building is conveyed to a large water-wheel in one of the courts, and communicates motion to a prodigious number of different tools. And the mechanic inventions for this purpose

pose are superior in multitude, variety, and simplicity, to those of any manufactory in the known world.

Toys, and utensils of various kinds, in gold, silver, steel, copper, tortoise-shell, enamels, and many vitreous and metallic compositions, with gilded, plated, and inlaid works, are wrought up to the highest elegance of taste, and perfection of execution, in this place; and these works, which in their infancy were little known or attended to, now cover several acres, give employment to more than 1000 persons, and are said to be the first of their kind in Europe.

Every precaution has been always taken, and in the most judicious manner, by the proprietors, to diminish the poor's levies, and keep their numerous workmen from becoming troublesome to the parish, &c. One great instance of which is a long established society for the sick and lame†.

The town of Birmingham consists of two parishes, in one of which is a handsome church, dedicated to St. Philip, and erected in the reign of Queen Anne. There are also two chapels of ease in the neighbourhood, and a great number of meeting-houses for Dissenters of all denominations. The lower part of the town consists chiefly of old buildings, filled with workshops, and principally inhabited by manufacturers: the upper part is far preferable, containing many new streets, with good houses, and a neat square. To enumerate the different manufactories of Birmingham, would be to recapitulate generally what has already been stated of Soho in particular; but it is necessary to add, that its inhabitants excel in the manufacture of fire-arms, pistols, &c. Here is an elegant new theatre; and, during the summer months, a garden has been fitted up about a mile and a half from the town, after the manner of Vauxhall. Birmingham has several good charities, supported by voluntary contributions, which indicate the benevolence of its inhabitants. This town was never incorporated, being only governed by two constables. Notwithstanding the noxious effluvia from its many furnaces, forges, &c. Birmingham, several years ago, was reckoned by Dr. Price to be the healthiest manufacturing town in the kingdom; and it is worthy of observation, that recent experience has confirmed the opinion: for, from the register of burials, in the average of six years, ending 1801, the scale of mortality was as one to fifty-nine only; while that of Manchester was as one to thirty-seven; and that of London as one to thirty-one. In 1801 here were 12,044 houses, and 72,522 inhabitants.

† Mr. Boulton, sen. died in 1809, greatly lamented by all who knew him. He was followed to the grave by 600 of his workmen, dressed in mourning, at the expence of the concern; and upwards of 100 carriages joined the cavalcade: to witness which it was supposed that not less than 100,000 persons were present from Birmingham and the adjacent country.

4. *Nuneaton*, a tolerably well built town on the river Anker: its name is supposed to be derived from a Benedictine nunnery, formerly erected here. The chief business of the place arises from the manufacture of woollen cloth and ribbons. Here are 1075 houses, and 4765 inhabitants.

CHESHIRE,

To the south of Lancashire, contains 676,000 acres, of which upwards of 600,000 are in a state of cultivation. It has a serene air, and good soil, and is famous for its salt works and cheese. The chief places are,

1. *Chester*, or, as it is commonly called, *West Chester*, is a large well built city, full of wealthy inhabitants, who, by their proximity to the Severn and Ireland, carry on a considerable trade, as may be seen by the great fairs held every year, to which abundance of tradesmen and merchants come from all parts, but particularly from Bristol and Dublin. It consists of four principal streets, running to the four cardinal points, hollowed out of a rock to the depth of one story beneath the level of the ground, and meeting in the centre of the city. The houses are, generally speaking, distinguished from all the buildings in Britain. They are for the most part of timber, very large and spacious, but are built with galleries, and piazzas, or covered walks before them, in which the people who walk are so hid, that, to look up or down the streets, no one is seen stirring, except with horses, carts, &c. and yet they may be said to be full of people. By the same means also, the shops are, as it were, hid, little part of them being to be seen, unless one is under those rows, or just opposite to a house. There are eleven parishes, and nine well built churches, together with a noble bridge of twelve arches over the river Dee. It is 181 miles from London, and sends two members to parliament. In 1801 here were 3109 houses, and 15,052 inhabitants.

2. **Stockport*, a large and populous town, on the river Mersey, consists of two parishes, in one of which is a fine church, erected in 1760; here are also several neat modern chapels for Dissenters Methodists, &c; and in 1806 a most extensive Sunday-school was erected, capable of holding 4000 scholars. A large cotton manufactory, of a castle-like form, stands in the market-place, which was built on the scite of an old castle. This town, to a stranger, has an odd appearance, from its being built on very hilly and uneven ground; but it has several good streets, and has greatly increased of late from its extensive manufacture of Manchester

and other goods. In 1801 it had 2572 houses, and 14,830 inhabitants.

3. *Macclesfield*, on an eminence near the river Bollin, has two good churches, in one of which is shewn the copy of a pardon said to have been granted by the pope to a woman and her seven children, for 26,000 years and 26 days, for saying five ave-marias and five pater-nosters. The trade of this town consists chiefly of hats, buttons, silk-twist, and cotton goods. The houses are well built, and some of the streets spacious. The place is well supplied with water from a fountain upon the common; for which every housekeeper pays a yearly sum to the mayor, who is lord of the manor. It contains 1426 houses, and 8743 inhabitants.

4. *Congleton*, on the river Dean, is a borough-town, but sends no members to parliament. It is esteemed very healthy; and the buildings are clean and neat. It has several manufactories of leather, cotton, and an extensive silk-mill. It contains 828 houses, and 3861 inhabitants.

5. *Nantwich*, or *Namptwich*, is a handsome well built town. The inhabitants are wealthy, and carry on a considerable trade, particularly in salt and cheese; the latter exceeding all that is made in the county, from the excellency of the soil. It has salt springs, which lie on the banks of a fresh-water stream, from which they make great quantities of salt. The water brought from the salt springs to the wick houses, as they are called, by troughs, is received into large casks set in the ground; from hence it is put into the leads, and a fire made for keeping it warm, during which women with wooden rakes gather it as it settles to the bottom. After this it is put into salt barrows, a kind of wicker baskets in the shape of a cone reversed, that the water may drain from it and leave the salt dry. This town contains 758 houses, and 3463 inhabitants.

STAFFORDSHIRE,

To the south-east of Cheshire, contains 765,440 acres, of which about 600,000 are in a state of cultivation. The air is salubrious; and the soil rich, though not very fertile. The chief places are,

1. *Litchfield*, a neat city, on a small branch of the Trent, is, when joined to Coventry, a bishopric. The cathedral suffered much in the time of the civil wars, but was thoroughly repaired after the restoration of Charles II. and is now a noble and admirable structure. It is walled in like a castle; but stands on such an eminence that it is seen ten miles round, having three noble spires. In the church are two neat monuments to the memory of Dr. Johnson and David Garrick, who were both natives of this city. Its inhabitants are mostly gentry, little trade being

carried on here. It has 873 houses, and 4712 inhabitants.

2. *Stafford*, the shire town, and place where the assizes are held, stands low, on the river Sow, over which it has a good bridge. It contains two handsome churches, a free school, and a spacious market-place, in which stands the shire-hall. It is well built and paved, and much increased of late, both in wealth and inhabitants, by its manufacture of cloth. The buildings are, for the most part, of stone and slate, and some of them in the modern taste. It contains 710 houses, and 3898 inhabitants.

3. **Wolverhampton*, seated on a rising ground, fourteen miles from Birmingham, is noted for its nail, lock, and hardware manufactories. Even the farmers in the neighbourhood have their forges, where they work when not employed in the field, and take to market as regularly as other farmers do their corn; whence it is bought up, and vast quantities exported to all parts of the world. Many of the women are assistants, and work at the files. The houses are tolerably good, of brick and tile, but have a sombre appearance; and the old streets are narrow and dirty. Here are two neat churches, and three charity schools. In 1801 here were 2344 houses, and 12,565 inhabitants.

4. *Walsall*, a populous town, the trade of which arises from its extensive manufacture of buckles, bridle-bits, and the various articles of hardware. The church is a spacious building, in the form of a cross; here is also a good free grammar school. It contains 1984 houses, and 10,399 inhabitants.

5. *Burslem*, seated on a rising ground near the Trent and Mersey canal, which about a mile from hence passes through a tunnel under ground, for the length of 1888 yards. The greatest part of the inhabitants of this town are employed in its extensive potteries. Here are 1213 houses, and 6578 persons.

6. *Stone*, on the banks of the Trent, has a noble church, with a square tower; also a good charity and free grammar school. It has 750 houses, and 4701 inhabitants.

7. *Newcastle-under-Lyne*, an ancient borough-town, seated on a branch of the Trent, had formerly four churches, three of which were destroyed during the barons' wars. A considerable part of the population is employed in the coarser articles of earthen ware; but its principal manufacture is that of hats, under an incorporated company of felt-makers. The streets are in general broad and well paved; but most of the buildings are low and ancient. In 1801 it had 977 houses, and 4604 inhabitants.

8. *Burton-on-Trent*, so called from its situation on that river, over which it has a noble bridge of free stone: the stream has been made navigable for barges

barges from Gainsborough. This town is famous for its ale, which is sent down the river to Hull, and forwarded to all parts of the kingdom. It has a neat public hall. The town lying low is reckoned rather unhealthy. It has 833 houses, and 4359 inhabitants.

9. *Leek*, standing on the river Churnet, has considerable trade in ribbons, silk, twist, and buttons. Here are 867 houses, and 4186 inhabitants.

10. *Wednesbury* has extensive iron works and manufactories of coach-springs, bridle-bits, and stirrups. It has a fine old Gothic church, and several neat meeting-houses. This place is reckoned famous for its coals, which are in great request in the midland counties; being sent by canal navigation as far as the metropolis. They are said to be valuable for smith's work, on account of their extreme heat. Here are 771 houses, and 4160 inhabitants.

SHROPSHIRE,

To the west of Staffordshire, contains 849,940 acres, of which 800,000 are in a state of cultivation. The air is generally salubrious and healthy. It abounds in lead, iron, and coal mines. The chief towns are,

1. *Shrewsbury*, an ancient borough on the river Severn, which surrounds it (except on the north side) in the form of a horse-shoe, and renders it a peninsula. It has a free grammar school, founded and endowed by Edward VI. Queen Elizabeth rebuilt it, added a library, and endowed it more largely. Here are five churches, two of which were rebuilt in an elegant manner in 1796, besides several meeting-houses; likewise twelve incorporated companies, who repair, in their formalities, once a year to Kingsland, on the opposite side of the Severn, where they entertain the mayor and corporation, in bowers erected for that purpose, and distinguished by mottos or devices suitable to their respective arts and trades. The streets are spacious, clean, and lighted, and the houses well built, with hanging gardens down to the river. Charles II. would have erected this town into a city; but the townsmen chose to remain a corporation; for which refusal they were afterwards called the proud Salopians. The town has been famed throughout England for cakes; and its brawn is reckoned to exceed that of Canterbury. It has plenty of provisions, especially salmon and other good fish. Here are many Welsh families: and on market days the general language spoken is Welsh. A great ornament in this town is that called the Quarry, now converted into one of the finest walks in England, both for beauty and extent. It takes in at least twenty acres of ground, on the south and south-west sides of the town, betwixt its walls and the Severn; being shaded with rows of lime trees on each side, and adorned in the centre with a fine

double alcove, with seats on both sides, one of them facing the town, and the other the river, over which are two fine stone bridges: the east, called the New bridge, is a noble structure of seven arches; and upon the other, or Welsh bridge, is a noble gate, over the arch of which is placed the statue of the great Llewellyn, the idol of the Welsh, and their last prince. The staple trade of this town is fine flannels and Welsh webs; and within a few years a large manufactory of linen thread has been erected. Here is a noble house of industry, famed for its excellent regulations in the management of its poor, erected on an eminence on the opposite side of the river, and has the appearance of a gentleman's residence. It was returned to parliament in 1801, as containing 2597 houses, and 13,486 inhabitants.

2. *Whitchurch*, on the northern edge of the county, has a fine church built with free stone, after the Tuscan order of architecture, erected by act of parliament in 1722. The inside is finely fitted up, and contains a fine altar-piece. This town has a good free school. It contains 876 houses, and 4515 inhabitants.

3. *Bridgenorth*, an ancient borough-town on the river Severn, which divides it into two parts, and over which is a handsome bridge of seven arches. It consists of two parishes, having three principal streets, of well built houses. It is a great place of trade, by land and water, in cloth stockings and iron tools. The air is healthy, and the prospects are most delightful. It contains 910 houses, and 4312 inhabitants.

4. *Ludlow*, a borough, situated at the confluence of two small rivers, near the southern border of the county. The main street is spacious, well paved and lighted; and the houses are neat and well built. The town-house is an elegant building of hewn stone; and the church is a fine old Gothic structure, with lofty windows of painted glass, and several curious antique monuments. Here is a neat hospital, an extensive alms-house, and a good free school. It has 780 houses, and 3897 inhabitants.

5. **Broseley*, on the Severn, has as considerable iron and coal works as any in the kingdom, in which upwards of 6000 hands are employed, and about 260,000 tons of coals are raised annually in this neighbourhood. In 1802 here were in the different works, 180 fine engines, and thirty years preceding there were not more than 20. Here is also a manufactory of glazed tobacco pipes. In 1801 here were 1022 houses, and 4832 inhabitants.

WORCESTERSHIRE,

South-east from Shropshire, contains 431,360 square acres, near 400,000 of which are in a cultivated state. The climate is mild; and the soil fertile. The chief places are,

1. *Worcester*;

1. *Worcester*, an ancient city on the Severn, over which it has a fine stone bridge of five arches, erected in 1780. The remarkable battle in 1651, when Charles II. was defeated by Cromwell, was fought near the south gate of the city, where bones of the slain are frequently dug up. On this occasion upwards of 2000 men were slain, and 8000 taken, who were sold for slaves to the American colonies. The chief manufactures of the place are broad cloth, gloves, and porcelain, which is a composition of a nature between fine earthenware and glass. The public buildings make a grand appearance, especially the guildhall, workhouse, and county-gaol; the last underwent a thorough repair in 1795, and has two large ward-yards, from the entrance to which the gaoler has a view of every cell. It had formerly a castle and walls, with three gates, and five watch-towers, all long since destroyed. The cathedral, which is exactly the model of that of Brussels, is a large edifice, but not very elegant, except the choir of the chapel, on the south side, which is of curious workmanship. A handsome library belongs to the cathedral, supported by one single pillar in the middle. Here are the monuments of king John, prince Arthur brother to Henry VIII. the countess of Salisbury, and other illustrious persons. Besides the cathedral, there are nine parish churches. The streets are broad and well paved: the Foregate-street is regular and beautiful. The hospitals deserve notice, especially that noble one erected by Robert Berkeley, of Spetchley, who laid out £2000 in the building, and £4000 in endowing it for twelve poor men. Besides this, there are six or seven others. The Severn, though generally rapid elsewhere, glides by Worcester very gently. There is at this city a good water-house and quay. It contains 2287 houses, and 11,352 inhabitants.

2. *Dudley* is an extensive town, situated in a detached part of the county, being entirely surrounded by Staffordshire. It comprises two parishes, with a church at each end of a long street, tolerably well built. Here are three charity and many Sunday schools. It is a place of great trade, and has several manufactories of nails, hardware, &c. In the neighbourhood are extensive coal mines. In 1801 here were 1922 houses, and 10,107 inhabitants.

3. *Kidderminster*, an extensive town on the river Stour, has a venerable Gothic church, lately ornamented and repaired at considerable expence, containing several ancient monuments. It was noted for its manufacture of broad cloths, in the reign of Henry VIII. afterwards for woolseys; and at a subsequent period for bombazeens, crapes, and poplins: and the Scotch and flat carpet manufacture, called Kidderminsters, was introduced here in 1735, with great success. In 1772, the number of looms employed in this trade, was 250, which

are now nearly doubled, and give employment to upwards of 3000 persons. Here is a good grammar school well endowed. This town contains 1636 houses, and 7036 inhabitants.

4. *Bromsgrove*, 12 miles north of Worcester, has a neat church, which stands on a hill, and is ascended by fifty steps. Its chief manufactures are nails, needles, pins, linen, and woollen. It has a good grammar school, founded by Edward VI. and contains 1148 houses, and 5898 inhabitants.

5. *Bewdley*, a borough-town on the Severn, has a good trade in malt, leather, salt, and iron ware. Here is a neat church in the centre of the town. This place contains 787 houses, and 3671 inhabitants.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE,

To the south of Worcestershire, contains about 800,000 acres, 750,000 of which are in a cultivated state. The climate is temperate, and the soil tolerably fertile; it produces excellent cheese, about 8000 tons of which are said to be annually exported. It has noted manufactories of broad cloth. The chief places are, .

1. *Gloucester*, a very ancient city, seated on the Severn, over which a good stone bridge is now erecting. It is said to have been a considerable town in the time of the Britons, and was a Roman military station, governed by a proconsul. It continued, in after times, to be very eminent, several parliaments being held here; and here Henry III. was crowned. It is at present a well built, clean, healthy city, secured by the river on one side, a branch of which brings vessels of considerable burden up to its walls. It consists principally of four spacious streets, meeting each other at right angles near the centre of the city, where formerly stood a beautiful cross, which going to decay, was removed in 1759. The cathedral is an ancient but magnificent fabric, and has a tower, which is one of the neatest and most curious pieces of architecture in England, and a whispering place, as in the cupola of St. Paul's. Here are, besides the cathedral, five other churches, and two grammar schools, together with a blue-coat school, elegantly rebuilt in 1808, which is a great ornament to the city. The principal manufacture of Gloucester is that of pin-making, the value of which sent weekly to London is estimated at £20,000. Here is also a considerable trade in wool-stapling and malting. The town is supplied with water from Robin Hood's well, which is a mile or two out of the city. In 1801 this city was returned to parliament as containing 1325 houses, and 7579 inhabitants.

2. **Stroud*, situated on an eminence near the Stroud water, which empties itself into the Severn. Its inhabitants are principally employed in the clothing

clothing branch, and it has long been celebrated for the excellence of its scarlet-dye, attributed to the quality of the water. The church is a good building, having a high spire at the west end, and a tower in the middle. Here were in 1801, 1033 houses, and 5432 inhabitants.

3. *Tewksbury*, a borough-town on the banks of the Severn, near its junction with the Avon. The church is a Gothic structure, and one of the largest and most magnificent in England, being 300 feet long, and 120 feet wide, in the form of a cross, having seven large painted windows. The houses are well built, and the situation of the town is delightful. It contains 159 houses, and 4196 inhabitants.

4. *Cirencester*, or, as it is pronounced, *Cicester*, is an ancient borough-town, situated near the borders of Wiltshire. It was formerly of much greater note than at present, having been reduced during the civil wars. It contains several good houses, intermixed with the old buildings. The principal trade is in wool and large edge tools. It contains 837 houses, and 4130 inhabitants.

5. **Cheltenham*, celebrated for its mineral waters, for which it has been much frequented, and is now more so, having been visited by their majesties and a part of the royal family in 1788. The town principally consists of one street of well built houses, paved and lighted. The church is a fine Gothic structure, and has one of the most commodious burial-grounds in the kingdom. The waters here are impregnated with salts, sulphur, steel, and calcareous earth, and operate both as a purgative and restorative. The season is from May to October. In 1803 an elegant new theatre was erected. Here were 645 houses, and 3076 inhabitants.

HEREFORDSHIRE,

To the north-west of Gloucestershire, contains 600,000 acres, of which 550,000 are in a state of cultivation. The form of this shire is nearly circular, being one of the most fertile counties in England, and particularly celebrated for its cyder. The chief places are,

1. *Hereford*, an ancient city, with a good stone bridge of eight arches over the river Wye, and is encompassed with rivers on all sides but the west. Its name signifies the ford of an army, it having been for several hundred years the head-quarters of the Saxons before the Conquest, and of the English afterwards, who were stationed here to keep the Welsh in awe. Before the civil wars it had six, but has now only four churches. The cathedral is a magnificent structure, and contains monuments of its ancient prelates. The bishop's castle, the close with the dignitaries' houses, and the college of the vicars and choristers, are pleasantly situated.

The city is in general well built, and the streets wide and spacious; but there is no manufacture of consequence. It has 1392 houses, and 6828 inhabitants.

2. *Leominster*, a neat borough-town on the Wye, has a considerable trade in making gloves, hats, and tanning leather. The church is a handsome building, having a beautiful altar-piece by Rubens. It contains 687 houses, and 3018 inhabitants.

3. *Ross*, seated on an eminence on the banks of the Wye, was formerly noted for its manufacture of iron; but now chiefly for its cyder. The Man of Ross, celebrated by Pope, was John Kyrle, Esq. a great benefactor to this town. It has two good charity schools, and contains 521 houses, and 2347 inhabitants.

MONMOUTHSHIRE,

South from Herefordshire, has about 340,000 acres of land, 315,000 of which are in a cultivated state. The eastern part is remarkably fertile; but the western is mountainous and bleak: its only manufacture is flannels. The chief towns are,

1. *Monmouth*, a borough-town, twelve miles from Hereford, which gives name to the county, and has its own from the mouth of the river Monnow, at which it is situated. It stands pleasantly between that river and the Wye, over each of which it has a bridge, and has been a place of note ever since the Conquest; for the castle, now in ruins, was a stately edifice at that time. Here that warlike prince Henry V. was born; hence called Henry of Monmouth. There are still remaining such parts of its fortifications as shew that it was formerly very strong. The town is almost surrounded by water; there being another river, the Trothy, over which is also a bridge. It has a stately church, the east end of which is curiously built. The town is handsome, with spacious streets, having a good free school and almshouses. It carries on a considerable trade with Bristol, by means of the Wye, in the produce of the Welsh counties. It had, in 1801, 638 houses, and 3345 inhabitants.

2. *Abergavenny* is beautifully situated at the confluence of the Usk and Gavenny, over the former of which it has a fine bridge of 15 arches; and being a thoroughfare from the western part of Wales to Bristol, Bath, Gloucester, and the metropolis, is a place of great resort. It has a considerable trade in flannels; and contains 520 houses, and 2573 inhabitants.

BERKSHIRE,

To the east of Gloucestershire, contains 476,160 square acres, about 400,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The air is esteemed healthy; and

it has small manufactories of woollens and sail-cloth. The chief towns are,

1. *Reading*, which stands on the river Thames, near the influx of the Kennet. Its name is supposed to have been derived from the British word *redin*, signifying "fern," which formerly abounded here. There are three parish-churches, built of flint and square stones. An hospital was founded in this town, and liberally endowed by archbishop Laud; and there was anciently a monastery, equal to most in England, both for its riches and beauty. The gate-house is still pretty entire; and there are some remains of its walls eight feet thick. The most remarkable natural curiosity is a continued bed of oyster-shells, which for many generations has been found near this place, extended through the circumference of five or six acres of ground. In 1785 an act of parliament was obtained for new paving the streets, which, together with a new market erected in 1800, has greatly improved the town. It has a considerable trade to London, by barges, in corn, flour, timber, &c. The chief manufactures are sacking, blankets, sail-cloth, and pins. It is a great thoroughfare between London and the west of England. In 1801 here were 1751 houses, and 9742 persons.

2. *Abingdon*, an ancient borough, on a branch of the river Isis, so named from an abbey founded here in 675. This place has often been the residence of the British kings: it consists of several well paved streets, which terminate in a spacious area, in which the market is held. In the centre is the town-hall, where the summer assizes for the county are held; those in Lent being at Reading. It consists of two parishes; and has several alms-houses, and other charities. A considerable trade is carried on in malt and grain. It contains 876 houses, and 4356 inhabitants.

3. *Windsor*, or, as it is commonly called, *New Windsor*, in opposition to the old town of that name, formerly the residence of the Saxon kings, is beautifully situated on a rising ground, at the foot of which runs the majestic river Thames. It has belonged to the crown ever since the Conquest, and has of late been much improved, from its ancient castle being the favoured residence of our beloved monarch. It contains many handsome buildings, and has several spacious well built streets; but the principal ornament of the town is its splendid castle, for a more particular description of which we refer our readers to the latter part of this section, where it is our intention to introduce a more succinct account of this and other noble edifices, than could with propriety be inserted here. The day on which his present Majesty entered the 50th year of his reign, Oct. 25, 1809, was celebrated here with great splendour. A beautiful triumphal arch was erected, and large sums of

money were distributed to the poor, with which they regaled themselves on roast beef and plum-pudding. In Bachelor's acre, an ox and two sheep were roasted by the populace; and her Majesty and the Princesses graced the festivities with their presence. This town stands 22 miles W. from London, and contains 507 houses, and 3361 inhabitants.

OXFORDSHIRE,

To the north-east of Berkshire, contains 450,000 acres, 400,000 of which are cultivated. It is a pleasant and healthy county; but the climate is cold, particularly in the western parts, owing to a want of wood, and the general introduction of stone fences. The produce is chiefly like that of most of the midland farming counties; and the principal manufactures are blankets, shag, gloves, and lace. The chief places are,

1. *Oxford*, an ancient city, situated at the conflux of the Charwell and Isis. It enjoys a sweet air, in a plentiful country, on a fine plain, and has every way a delightful prospect. The private buildings are neat, and the public ones sumptuous and magnificent. But that which gives it a consequence above all other places in the kingdom, is its ancient and noble university, said to be the oldest in Europe, having been founded between eight and nine hundred years. The constitution is so regular, the endowments so plentiful, the mansions so convenient for study, and every thing so suitable to the education of youth, and the accomplishment of students, that it is no wonder such numbers of learned men are sent from hence into the services of the church and state. It contains 20 colleges, and five halls; a stately pile, called the Schools, wherein exercises for the several degrees are performed; the theatre, the most magnificent building of the kind in the world; the Clarendon printing-office, which likewise surpasses every thing of a similar nature in the universe; the museum, containing a chemical laboratory; a repository of natural and artificial curiosities, and many valuable antiquities; a library, physic garden, &c.

The number and periods of the foundation and endowment of the different colleges, will appear from the following list:

1. Baliol College—Founder, John Baliol, (father of John king of Scotland) and his wife Dervorgilla, Countess of Galloway, in 1263.
2. Merton—Walter Merton, Bishop of Rochester, 1267.
3. University—William, Archdeacon of Durham, 1292.
4. Exeter—Walter Stapleton, Bishop of Exeter, 1316.
5. Oriel—Adam de Brome, Almoner to Edward II. 1324.

6. Queen's

6. Queen's—Robert Eglesfield, Chaplain to Queen Philippa, 1340.
7. New—William of Wickham, 1379.
8. Lincoln—Richard Fleming, Bishop of Lincoln, 1427.
9. All Souls—Archbishop Chicheley, 1438.
10. Magdalen—William of Wainfleet, 1458.
11. Brazen Nose—William Smith, Bishop of Lincoln, 1513.
12. Corpus Christi—Richard Fox, Bishop of Winchester, 1516.
13. Christ's Church—Wolsey and Henry VIII. 1525.
14. Trinity—Sir Thomas Pope, 1556.
15. St. John's—Sir Thomas White, 1557.
16. Jesus—Dr. Price, 1571.
17. Wadham—Nicholas Wadham, Esq. 1613.
18. Pembroke—Thomas Tesdale, Esq. 1624.
19. Worcester—Sir Thomas Coke, 1714.
20. Hertford—Dr. Richard Newton, 1740.

Before any of the above-mentioned colleges were built or endowed, the university consisted of halls, or inns; out of a number of which, five only remain, viz. Alban's, St. Edmund's, St. Mary's, New Inn, and Magdalen. These societies are neither endowed nor incorporated, each being governed by a principal appointed by the chancellor, their salary arising from the room-rent of their houses.

This university is governed by a chancellor (generally a peer of the realm) who is chosen for life, a vice-chancellor, high-steward, two proctors, and three esquire beadles, with other inferior officers.

Of the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge many minute descriptions have appeared. Oxford is the more majestic, from the grandeur of the colleges and other public buildings, and the superior regularity and neatness of the streets; but the chapel of King's College at Cambridge is supposed to excel any single edifice of the other university. Both of those magnificent seminaries impress feelings of reverential awe, not only by their architectural dignity, but many collateral ideas of ancient greatness and science.

To attain the degree of Bachelor of Arts, a residence of twelve terms, or three years, is necessary at Cambridge, and four at Oxford; in both universities three years more must elapse, before the student can commence Master of Arts; after which seven years are required before he can become Bachelor of Divinity; and four more for the Doctor's degree. That of Doctor of Laws may be acquired in seven years after he is declared Master of Arts.

Oxford consists of 14 parishes; and in 1801 there were 1902 houses, and 12,107 inhabitants.

2. *Henley-upon Thames*, a handsome town, with good houses and spacious streets, well lighted. Here is a noble bridge over the Thames, which river is made navigable for barges, and by it consi-

derable quantities of corn, malt, and beech-wood are sent to the metropolis. The church is an ancient fabric, said to have been built by Cardinal Wolsey. This town contains 625 houses, and 2948 inhabitants.

3. *Banbury*, a borough-town on the river Chavell, is famous for a kind of cakes, known by the name of *Banbury Cakes*, and for its fine ale. The church has lately been rebuilt; but it is neither handsome nor elegant. Here are 502 houses, and 2955 inhabitants.

4. *Witney*, a town which has long been noted for its manufacture of blankets, employing a number of hands, and the proprietors of which, in the reign of Queen Anne, obtained a charter of incorporation. The town consists principally of two streets; at the upper end of one of which stands a neat church, with a handsome parsonage. Here are some well endowed alms-houses, an extensive free school, and a good charity school. It contains 518 houses, and 2584 inhabitants.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE,

To the east of Oxfordshire, contains 518,400 square acres, 430,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The climate is healthy, and the soil fertile; it produces an immense quantity of fresh butter for the use of the metropolis; its principal manufacture is bone-lace. The chief places are,

1. *Aylesbury*, a borough-town, situated on a branch of the Thames, is, alternately with Buckingham, the place where the business of the county is transacted, and the assizes held. The vale of Aylesbury, in which the town stands, is reckoned the richest land in England. The streets are spacious, with a noble market-place, in which stands the shire-hall. Great quantities of lace are made in this town and neighbourhood; and abundance of poultry is here reared for the London markets. The town contains 679 houses, and 3186 inhabitants.

2. *Buckingham*, a very ancient borough-town, is seated in a low situation on the river Ouse, over which it has three bridges. It is supposed to derive its name from *bock*, "beech," with which this county abounded. The town consists of one long street; the houses are meanly built, and many of them thatched. It has little trade, except making lace, in common with the other towns of the county. The principal ornament of the town is its elegant new church, the inside of which is fitted up in a beautiful style. It contains 531 houses, and 2605 inhabitants.

3. *High Wycombe*, an ancient borough-town, consisting of one principal street of well built houses, with several smaller ones branching therefrom. There are many paper and corn-mills in the neighbourhood, which constitute the chief traffic

traffic of the place. Here are a free grammar school, and a new royal military college. It contains 818 houses, and 4248 inhabitants.

4. *Great Marlow*, a borough-town, situated on the river Thames, over which an elegant new bridge has been erected by a subscription from the nobility and gentry in the neighbourhood. The town has also recently been paved by subscription. The church and town-hall are both handsome buildings. A considerable trade is carried on with the metropolis in beech and malt. Here are 617 houses, and 3236 inhabitants.

BEDFORDSHIRE,

To the north-east of Buckinghamshire, contains 260,000 acres, about 220,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The air is wholesome, and the soil rich and fertile. The chief towns are,

1. **Bedford*, one of the most flourishing borough towns in the kingdom, is seated on the river Ouse. It is a clean, well built, populous place, and has five churches, of which the chief, St. Paul's, had once a college of prebendaries, and is still a fine structure. The principal street is nearly a mile in length; and within the last fourteen or fifteen years considerable improvements have been made in the general appearance of the place. A modern assize and sessions house, and new town prison and county gaol have been recently erected. The present prosperity of this town is owing in a great measure to the increase in the value of the estates left to it by Sir William Harpur, Lord Mayor of London in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, who was a native of this borough, and at his death bequeathed to the town of Bedford for ever six acres of land in the vicinity of London, then let on lease for a number of years at £90 per annum, for the purpose of erecting a free school for the education of the poor children of this place. Since that period the estate has been let on building leases, and now forms one of the most populous parts of the metropolis, having several handsome streets erected on it, as Bedford Row, Lamb's Conduit Street, &c. &c. producing to this town several thousands annually, all of which, by the will of the testator, must be expended here. The trustees of this charity, besides a handsome school-house, have lately built and endowed twenty alms-houses; and a house of industry has lately been erected for the poor of the five united parishes. Here is an old bridge over the Ouse; but in the year 1809 the plan of a new and splendid edifice received the sanction of the corporation, and is now building. In 1801 this town had 783 houses, and 3948 inhabitants.

2. *Luton*, a considerable town on the river Lea, has a remarkable church with a tower steeple curiously intermixed with flint and free stone. The buildings are mean, and the streets dirty. The

principal trade is in the manufacture of straw hats. It has 612 houses, and 3095 inhabitants.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE,

To the north-east of Bedford, contains 240,000 acres, of which about 200,000 are in a state of cultivation. The climate is healthy, and the soil fertile. It has no manufactures of consequence. The only place of note is,

Huntingdon, an ancient borough, near the Ouse, over which it has a stone bridge, is the place where the assizes are constantly held, and has a good county-gaol. It is a neat town, consisting of one large street, well built, with a handsome market-place, and a good grammar school. Meadows are not to be seen any where of a finer nature than on the banks of the river, which in summer are covered with numerous herds of cattle and flocks of sheep. The bridge, or rather bridges, with the causeway, are ornaments as well as benefits to the town. In 1801 it had 350 houses, and 2035 inhabitants.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE,

To the east of Huntingdonshire, contains 500,000 acres, 300,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The air is very different in different parts of the county: on the northern side, which is chiefly composed of fens and marshes, it is moist and foggy, and consequently very unwholesome: but towards the south, it is healthy and fertile. The whole has undergone great improvements of late years. The chief towns are,

1. *Cambridge*, a very ancient borough, so called from its situation on the banks of the Cam, which forms several islands on the west side, and divides the town into two parts, joined together by a large stone bridge. It was well known in the time of the Romans by the name of *Camboritum*. William the Conqueror built a castle here, of which the gate-house is still standing, and used for the county gaol. The town is divided into 10 wards, and has 14 parish-churches. Most of the streets are irregular, and the buildings intermixed with old and new houses; but some of them are rebuilt in a broad, airy, and pleasant manner, and are all well paved. It has no manufactures, and but little trade, being chiefly noted for its university, which contains 17 colleges and halls, and is a corporation of itself, governed by a chancellor, high steward, vice-chancellor, &c. Their names, together with that of their founders, and the periods of their endowment, are as follow:

1. Peter-house, founded by Hugh Balsam, Bishop of Ely, in 1284
2. Clare-hall—Elizabeth de Burg, Countess of Ulster, 1340.

3. Pembroke-

3. *Pembroke-hall*—Mary de Valentia, Countess of Pembroke, 1347.
4. *Gonville and Caius*—The Doctors so named, 1348 and 1557.
5. *Trinity-hall*—William Bateman, Bishop of Norwich, 1353.
6. *Ben'et, or Corpus Christi*—Henry Duke of Lancaster, 1356.
7. *King's College*—Henry VI. 1443.
8. *Queen's College*—Margaret of Anjou, 1446.
9. *Catherine-hall*—Dr. Woodlark, 1474.
10. *Jesus College*—John Alcock, Bishop of Ely, 1497.
11. *Christ's College*—Margaret, Countess of Richmond, mother of Henry VII. 1516.
12. *St. John's College*—Margaret, Countess of Richmond, mother to Henry VII. 1511.
13. *Magdalen College*—Thomas, Lord Audley, 1520.
14. *Trinity College*—Henry VIII. 1546.
15. *Sydney College*—Frances Sydney, Countess of Sussex, 1588.
16. *Emanuel*—Sir Walter Mildmay, 1589.
17. *Downing College*—Lady Downing, 1800.

As the reader will perceive that we have inserted the halls in the foregoing statement, it may be necessary to remark, that there is not that difference between them as at Oxford; they being founded and endowed in the same manner as the colleges. Attached to the university is a neat botanic garden for the use of the students. The town of Cambridge is well supplied with provisions; its markets being under the control and jurisdiction of the university. In 1801 here were 1691 houses, and 10,087 inhabitants.

2. *Ely*, an ancient city, supposed to have derived its name from the number of eels with which this part of the county abounds, is situated in the fenny country called the Isle of Ely; and being surrounded by the Ouse and other streams, is unhealthy, though it stands on a rising ground. It was made an episcopal see by Henry I. The cathedral and the bishop's palace are its chief ornaments; the former has a remarkable dome and lanthorn. In 1792, a handsome window of painted glass was put up over the altar. Ely has but one good well paved street; the others being mean and dirty. It has a good free grammar school, and two charity schools. It contains 756 houses, and 3713 inhabitants.

3. *Wisbeach*, a considerable town, situated on the river Nene, has several streets of well built houses. It has a considerable trade in oil, pressed from seeds at mills in the neighbourhood, and in the exportation of grain and provisions to the metropolis; and contains 1058 houses, and 5542 inhabitants.

4. *Newmarket*, a handsome well built town,

consisting of one long street, the north side of which is in Suffolk, is famous for horse-races, and is much frequented by persons of all ranks. The town is not modern, as the name imports; for it was of note in Edward III's time; but being burnt down in 1683, was afterwards rebuilt. Besides the parish church of St. Mary, there is also a small church, called All Saints, which is, properly speaking, only a chapel of ease to Wood Ditton, in Cambridgeshire. It is a healthy place, and on a spacious heath, which is the finest course in England. Here are several very wide, steep, and long ditches, which were cut by the East Angles, to keep out the Mercians: one of which being a stupendous work, much superior to the rest, has obtained the name of the Devil's Ditch, and runs many miles over the heath. This town has 305 houses, and 1792 inhabitants.

SUFFOLK

Contains 1,002,240 square statute acres, 850,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The climate is tolerably healthy; and the soil partially fertile. It was formerly noted for its manufactures, which have long declined. The chief towns are,

1. *Bury St. Edmund's*, a handsome borough-town, and the place where the county assizes are held. It was named from a rich abbey founded here in honour of St. Edmund, the king, who was cruelly murdered in a wood near this place by the Danes. The town is built with great regularity, many of the streets crossing each other at right angles, consisting of neat and well built houses. It is remarkably clean and well paved, containing two churches, both of which are handsome edifices. Here is a spacious guildhall, and a beautiful cross, surrounded by iron rails; also an elegant little theatre. The market is handsome and spacious; and here is a grammar school, erected by Edward VI. It has 1360 houses, and 7655 inhabitants. The neighbourhood is famous for the excellence of the butter, and badness of its cheese, the latter of which is proverbially the worst in England.

2. *Ipswich*, an ancient borough, was once in a more flourishing state than at present, as appears from the great number of ships that belonged to it. It had twenty-one churches, of which now only twelve remain. The houses are in general well built, and the streets paved. In the centre of the market-place is a handsome cross. The tide rises here twelve and sometimes fourteen feet. The town is populous, about a mile long, and something more in breadth, forming a sort of half-moon on the banks of the river, over which it has a good bridge of stone. It is a corporation; and its chief trade is in malt and corn. Here are a convenient quay and custom-house. Cardinal Wolsey, a native

tive of this town, built and endowed a college here ; but the disgrace of that great man, before it was completed, put an end to the design. In 1801 there were 1934 houses, and 10,043 inhabitants.

3. *Sudbury*, an ancient borough-town on the river Stour, consisting of three parishes, in which are three neat churches. The streets are tolerably well built; and over the river is a good stone bridge. It is said to have been one of the first towns into which the woollen manufacture was introduced; but is now gone to decay, this traffic having been removed into the western counties. It contains 594 houses, and 3283 inhabitants.

4. *Beccles*, a neat town, consisting of several streets, which centre in a spacious area, where the market is kept. It has an elegant Gothic church, neat town-hall, and modern gaol. It contains 601 houses, and 2788 inhabitants.

5. *Bungay*, a modern town, the old one being nearly all consumed by fire in 1688. The houses are well built, and the streets spacious. It has two churches, both of which are handsome edifices. In the market-place are two beautiful crosses. It contains 478 houses, and 2349 inhabitants.

6. *Lowestoff*, a sea-port town on the east side of the county, consisting chiefly of one long street, from north to south. The principal employment is the fishery: upwards of 70,000 barrels of herrings have been exported in one season. This town stands on a lofty eminence, and commands an extensive prospect of the German Ocean: of late years several bathing machines have been built for the accommodation of a pretty numerous company, who resort here for the benefit of sea-bathing. It contains 496 houses, and 2332 inhabitants.

NORFOLK,

To the north of Suffolk, contains 1,094,000 acres, of which about 1,000,000 are in a cultivated state. The climate is healthy; and the soil fertile, owing in a great measure to the excellence of its husbandry. The face of the country varies less than any other in the kingdom, not a hill of any height to be seen in the whole county. Yet in many parts it is broken into gentle swells and depressions. The chief places are,

1. *Norwich*, a large and ancient city, near the conflux of the rivers Vensder and Yare, stands on the side of a hill, and is near two miles in length, and one in breadth. The city is said to be six miles in compass; it is irregularly built, though the houses, both public and private, are generally neat and handsome. Here are six bridges over the Yare, and thirty-six churches besides the cathedral, a large, venerable, and handsome structure, adorned with the history of the Bible. The choir is large and spacious; and it has a beautiful painted window, the ingenious performance of the lady of one of the deans. Here are

also two churches for the Dutch and French Flemings, with several others for Dissenters of all denominations. The stately castle, standing on a hill, commands a fine view of the city: it is said to have been built by King Alfred; and is now converted into the shire-house and county-gaol. Here are four well endowed hospitals, upwards of a dozen charity schools, a good public library; and a noble infirmary, extending its benefits to the county as well as the city, bears testimony to the humanity of modern times. The principal employ of the inhabitants arises from the worsted manufacture, which is supposed to have been introduced here by the Flemings in the 12th century, and was followed by that of bombazeens. Of late the damasks, camblets, crapes, and stuffs wrought here, have been computed at the yearly value of seven hundred thousand pounds; but the fashionable use of cottons, and the interruption of commerce by war, have considerably lessened the consumption. The chief exports are to Holland, Germany, and the Mediterranean. In 1801 this city contained 4977 houses, and 28,862 inhabitants.

2. *Yarmouth*, a borough and sea-port of great antiquity, at the estuary of the river Yare, from whence it is named. It is esteemed the key of this coast; but though the harbour is a fine one, the roads are dangerous in windy weather. This place is noted for its fisheries of mackarel in May and June, and herrings in October and November: the latter, cured by salt, and dried in the smoke of wood, are called red-herrings, 60,000 barrels of which are said to be cured here annually; and besides home consumption, form a considerable article of export to Spain and Italy. The town is encompassed on the south and east by the sea, on the north by the main land, and on the south by the river, over which is a handsome draw-bridge into Suffolk. It extends more than a mile in length, containing four principal streets running from north to south, and nearly 200 narrow lanes or rows intersecting them, which oblige the inhabitants to use small cars of a peculiar construction, with the wheels beneath, both as a carriage to ride upon, and as a conveyance for goods. The market-place is spacious; and here is a very extensive and beautiful quay, which is of great advantage; as the import and export trade of Norwich and many other places centres here. The church, which is dedicated to St. Nicholas, who is said to be the patron of fishermen, is a stately and extensive pile; and near the middle of the town is a beautiful chapel of ease. Yarmouth has of late years been frequented for sea-bathing; and here is a neat theatre, erected in 1769; an hospital has been founded in this place for old fishermen; and here are several excellent charities. In 1801 it had 3081 houses, and 14,845 inhabitants.

3. *Lynn Regis*, or *King's Lynn*, a handsome borough and sea-port, stands on the right bank of the river Ouse, about eight miles from the sea. The harbour is capable of containing 300 merchant vessels; and the advantageous situation of the town gives it a considerable traffic with the neighbouring countries, in wine, coals, &c, together with the return produce for exportation. The streets in general are narrow, but well paved; and the market-place is very spacious, having a handsome market-cross of free stone in the centre; it is also adorned with a statue of William III. on horseback. Here is a fine church, with two neat chapels of ease, and places of worship for Methodists and Dissenters of all denominations. It contains 1465 houses, and 10,096 inhabitants.

4. *Thetford*, a neat borough town on the river Ouse, was formerly of much greater extent than at present, but still contains some good streets of handsome houses; it has a neat church and handsome market-house. The county assizes are generally held here, in an ancient building of black flint. In 1801 it had 483 houses, and 2245 inhabitants.

MIDDLESEX

Contains 179,200 acres of land, of which 100,000 are in pasturage; 40,000 arable, and 20,000 occupied by market gardens, cultivated for the supply of the metropolis with vegetables and roots. Its name was derived from its having been inhabited by a party of Saxons, who being situated in the midst of the three petty kingdoms of the East, West, and South Saxons, were called by their neighbours *Middle Saxons*, which in process of time was abbreviated to *Middlesax*, or *Middlesex*. The air is remarkably healthy, and soil fertile; and the whole county may be reckoned a sort of demesne to the metropolis, being covered with the villas of our principal nobility and gentry; intersected by the innumerable roads leading to it, or laid out in gardens, pastures, and inclosures of all sorts, for its convenience and support. The produce of hay for the London market is one of the principal objects of the farmers of this county. The number of cows kept by the cow-keepers for the supply of the metropolis is 7500, besides 1500 kept in Surrey and Kent. The chief places are,

1. *London*, the metropolis of the British empire, is situated on the north bank of the river Thames, and appears to have been founded by the inhabitants of Britain in times prior to the Roman invasion under Cæsar. The first mention of London in authentic history, is by Tacitus, who speaks of its being sacked in the year 61, under the emperor Nero, by the British queen Boadicea. It was then a place of importance among the Roman possessions in Britain, and, according to that au-

thor, was the chief residence of merchants, and the great mart of trade and commerce. Under the emperor Claudius it became a Roman colony, and was governed by a prefect, annually sent from Rome, who administered the laws of the empire to the inhabitants, consisting not only of Romans but Britons. By the Romans it was called *Londinium*, and *Londinium Augusta*; by the Britons, *Lundayn*; and by the Saxons, at a later period, *Londenceaster*, *Lunden-byrig*, *Lunden-wic*, and finally *London*. There have been many fanciful etymologies of its name, the true meaning of which, however, appears to have been lost in the antiquity of its origin. The walls were unquestionably reared by the Romans, but under which of their emperors is uncertain; some authors ascribing them to Constantine the Great, others to his mother Helena, and others to Valentinian, about the year 368. This wall was composed alternately of layers of flat Roman brick and rag stones, (similar, no doubt, to those which still remain at Silchester and Verulam,) and had many lofty towers, those on the land-side being fifteen in number. The original boundaries appear to have been Ludgate-hill on the west, a fortress (probably near the scite of the Tower) on the east, Cripplegate on the north, and the bank of the river on the south. On the decay of the Roman empire, that people relinquished Britain, and London remained in the possession of the native Britons more than 90 years before it fell into the hands of the Saxons. On the establishment of the Saxon heptarchy, London became the metropolis of the kingdom of the East Saxons, and was governed by a magistrate called a portreeve, *i. e.* governor or guardian of the port. In the year 400, Augustine the monk introduced Christianity into England, and was made archbishop of Canterbury, when he ordained Melitus bishop of the East Saxons, and established his see at London, where a church was erected for him by Ethelbert king of Kent. During the ravages committed in Britain by the Danes, London suffered materially; but Alfred having driven out the invaders, not only repaired the walls and towers, but embellished the city with additional buildings, and constituted London the metropolis even of the country. In the reign of Ethelred, Canute, king of Denmark, sailed up the river, A. D. 1016, in order to plunder the city; but finding he could not pass London-bridge with his fleet, he caused a canal to be cut through the marshes on the south, by which he brought his ships to the west of the bridge, and attacked the city on all sides. He was however repulsed by the citizens, who exerted themselves with extraordinary bravery, and obliged him to raise the siege. He afterwards renewed his attack with greater vigour, but not with better success. A peace however being concluded between him and Edmund Iron-side,

side, the kingdom was divided between them; the capital falling to the share of Canute. We have a strong proof of the opulence of London, even at this time, from the tax laid upon it by this prince in order to pay his army; this being no less than £10,500, whilst the rest of the nation was at the same time taxed only at £72,000.

At the Norman Conquest, London was a place of great wealth and power; its civil government and privileges, as enjoyed under the Saxons, being confirmed by the Conqueror. In the reign of Henry I. companies first began to be established, according to the arts and manufactures of those who composed them; the king reserving to himself the power of appointing the *portreeve*, which title was now changed for that of *bailiff*. The city also obtained a most important grant by the adjunction of the jurisdiction of the county of Middlesex, with a power of appointing its *sheriff* from among the citizens. On the death of Henry the city assisted Stephen in his endeavour to obtain the crown, and purchased of him the right of choosing their own chief magistrates. Henry II. granted them a new charter, which confirmed their liberties and immunities. In the reign of Richard I. London was disgraced by the massacre of nearly the whole of the Jews residing in it, on the day preceding this monarch's coronation; at which the head magistrate, or bailiff, assisted as chief butler, whom, two years afterwards (1191), this monarch permitted to assume the title of *mayor*, and to be elected annually: formerly the office was held for life. In this reign the citizens purchased the conservancy of the river Thames, which is still retained. In 1212, the walls were encompassed by a deep ditch 200 feet wide. Henry III. harassed the citizens by seizing their charters, and making them purchase new ones; but in the following reign of Edward I. its privileges were confirmed, and the city was divided into 24 wards, the chief magistrate of each of which had the ancient Saxon title of *Alderman*; and each ward chose some of the inhabitants as a common-council, who were to be consulted, and their advice followed, in all public affairs relating to the city. Edward III. in 1327, granted Southwark to the citizens; and in 1354, the same prince granted the city the privilege of having a gold or silver mace carried before the chief magistrate: and it is supposed by some, that at this time the title of *lord* was added to that of *mayor*; while others attribute this honourable appellation to have been given to the city in the succeeding reign of Richard II. from the intrepidity of William Walworth, the then mayor, who killed the rebel Wat Tyler, in Smithfield, with a dagger; since which time the semblance of this weapon has been introduced as the city arms.

Under the succeeding reigns, as the liberty of the

people was in general augmented, so the liberties, opulence, and power of the citizens encreased, until they became a kind of balance to the power of the crown itself, which in some measure they still continue to be. Riots, indeed, for which they generally suffered, were by no means unfrequent. During the civil wars the citizens entered heartily into the measures of the parliament against Charles I. and fortified the city with forts. On the restoration they heartily and zealously joined in the measures of General Monk; and on the 29th of May, 1660, the lord mayor and aldermen went out to meet Charles II. in St. George's Fields. During this reign, London was awfully visited by a dreadful plague, and most tremendous fire; from which it had scarcely recovered, when a second time it was attempted to be fired by the Papists, who, to revenge themselves, forged what was called the *meal-tub plot*, in which the Presbyterians were supposed to design the death of the king; on minute investigation the whole scheme was developed, which so exasperated the Londoners that they burnt the pope in effigy, in Fleet-street. This proceeding gave great umbrage to the duke of York, afterwards James II. who had great influence at court; and on the election for *sheriff* soon after, the candidates favoured by the crown were rejected by a majority of two to one, which caused a tumult; this being by the popish party misrepresented to the king, he issued a commission that evening for trying the rioters, who were only the more resolutely bent, from this measure, upon opposing the Roman Catholics. About this time the king prorogued parliament, which prevented their proceedings on the Popish conspirators; upon this the city presented a petition to his majesty, requesting he would permit the parliament to sit, in order to complete their salutary measures: this was highly resented by the king, who, instead of granting it, could never afterwards be reconciled to the city. From this time he resolved to seize their charter; and fresh provocation having been given about the election of other officers, a *quo warranto* was produced by the attorney-general, which stated that the city had forfeited their charter to the king: this measure produced great altercation in the city council; who, however, on a shew of hands, were by a majority for submission, which was accepted, on condition that his majesty should appoint the chief magistrates. Thus the king got the government of the city into his hands, though he and his brother lost the confidence of the citizens, who took a most active part in the Revolution of 1688, by which this family were excluded from the throne, and the Londoners had the full restoration of their franchises, and in such a manner and form, by a bill brought into parliament, as to put it out of the power of any ministry, or corrupt judges or

jury.

jury, to deprive them of their privileges for the time to come. Since that time the city has in general enjoyed tranquillity; its commerce has been carried to the highest pitch; and for its politeness, riches, commerce, and number of inhabitants, as well as the extent and magnificence of its buildings, is superior to every city in Europe.

The buildings of London, prior to the Roman conquest, are represented as having been miserable hovels, built of clay; but these colonists introduced more substantial places of residence, and surrounded the city with walls, A.D. 50. But on the declension of the Roman power, they were suffered to go to decay, till the reign of the immortal Alfred, who transferred the seat of government from Winchester hither, and greatly improved the city, 885. It was much damaged by fire in 982, 1027, and 1130; and had no pavement in 1090. In the reign of king John, 1200, the houses were built of timber, and thatched with straw; but, to prevent fire, ordered to be built with stone, and covered with slates; but this order was not observed, for we find them nearly in a similar state in the reign of Edward II. 1300. In 1416 Sir Henry Barton, lord mayor, first ordered lanterns to be hung out, to illuminate the streets by night; and about this time the city was generally paved with pebbles. In 1600, or the latter years of the reign of Elizabeth, London presented a motley appearance, being chiefly built of wood, with a few stone houses intermixed on a most irregular plan. In 1615 the sides of some of the principal streets began to be paved with broad flag-stones. The dreadful fire which happened in 1666 was at that time to be considered as a national calamity; but since that æra may be traced the progressive improvement of London, till it has unquestionably become the first city in the universe; though it must be lamented that such due attention was not paid to regularity, in building the houses and planning the streets, as ought to have been.

The plague made dreadful ravages here in 1362 and in 1379; again in 1499, when 30,000 persons died. In 1594 it is said to have carried off one-fourth part of the population; again in 1631, whereof died 35,417 people: but the last and most awful visitation was in 1665, which swept off 68,000 persons; since which time it has never reappeared.

London, at present, including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex, is a place of surprising extent, of prodigious wealth, and the most extensive trade. This city, when considered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was—the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the world. London is

the centre of trade; having an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; and the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, from whence they are sent into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. Hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed; and from this cause arises that circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and prosperous; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and most distant members. The merchants are here very opulent, as is evident from their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such an elegant appearance.

The Thames, though not the largest river in the world, is very convenient for commerce; being continually filled with fleets sailing to or from the most distant climates; and its banks, from London-bridge to Blackwall, are almost one continued magazine of naval stores, containing several large wet docks, numerous dry docks, and yards for the building of ships for the use of the merchants, besides the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters, and the king's yards down the river for the building of men of war. Being about sixty miles distant from the sea, London enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or annoyed by the vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water's edge, and extends itself on both sides along its banks, to a prodigious length from east to west, in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north; being continued for near 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent houses and populous villages.

Though the impression of the tide be felt as far as Staines, the Thames here, and a considerable way below, is untainted with salt. Its waters are raised by machinery, and conducted in innumerable pipes for domestic uses; while the parts more remote are supplied with water from that laudable work of Middleton, the New River, which conveys a copious addition from the north. The Thames water is said to impart peculiar qualities to the liquor called porter; but this idea perhaps only tends to strengthen the monopoly of the London brewers.

Over this noble river are three bridges*, the most ancient of which is that called London-bridge, first built of stone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool; which, in the course of time, gave rise to the notion that it was built upon woolpacks. From that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements,

* In the session of parliament of 1809, two bills received the royal assent: one for the erection of a stone bridge over the Thames at Vauxhall; and the other for a similar edifice across from the Strand, near the Savoy.

particularly since the year 1756, when the houses were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient. The road for carriages is thirty-one feet broad, with seven feet on each side for foot-passengers. It crosses the Thames, where it is 915 feet broad, and has at present nineteen arches, of about twenty feet wide each; but the centre one is considerably larger. This bridge is by many architects considered, in several points of view, as unfit for its purpose; and the committee appointed to consider the requisite improvements in and about London, in 1801, proposed the removal of this bridge, and to replace it with another of cast iron, sixty-five feet high in the clear above high water, of a single arch, 600 feet wide; but no progress has hitherto been made in the execution of this plan, though it is by no means abandoned.

Westminster-bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind in the universe; being built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1223 feet wide, which is about 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each side is a fine balustrade of stone, with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is forty-four feet; having on each side a fine foot-way for passengers. It consists of fourteen piers, and thirteen large and two small arches, all semicircular; that in the centre being seventy-six feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the thirteen great ones are each fifty-two feet. It is computed that the value of £40,000 in stone and other materials is always under water. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750, at the expence of £389,000, defrayed by the parliament.

Blackfriars-bridge is not inferior to that of Westminster, either in magnificence or workmanship; but the situation of the ground on the two shores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many persons prefer it to that of Westminster. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expence of £152,840, to be defrayed by a toll upon the passengers, and which was discharged about the year 1784. It is situated at almost an equal distance between those of Westminster and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and discovers the majesty of St. Paul's in a very striking manner; with which we shall commence our description of the public buildings.

St. Paul's is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular Protestant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; the breadth 250; the height, from the marble pavement to the cross on the top of the cupola, 440; and the entire circumference 2292 feet. It is built of Portland

stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which, in some respects, it is superior. This church was the principal work of Sir Christopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only fabric of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to an old age, and finished the building thirty-seven years after he himself laid the first stone. It takes up six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it, after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and amounted to £736,752 2s. 3½d. exclusive of the iron rails that surround it, which, with seven iron gates, cost £11,202. The interior was long defective in decoration; but the monuments recently executed, in imitation of those at Westminster, contribute to obviate this remark.

Westminster Abbey, or the collegiate church of Westminster, claims the next rank to St. Paul's cathedral, being not only in itself a superb edifice of Gothic architecture, but as being the sanctuary of the illustrious dead, of all ranks, periods, and professions. It was founded by Sebert, King of the East Saxons; afterwards ruined by the Danes, and re-founded by Edward the Confessor, whose tomb is the most ancient now remaining. The present edifice was the work of Henry III.; and Henry VII. added an elegant chapel to it. In the vaults under this chapel the deceased monarchs and their offspring have been deposited. The body of the cathedral is crowded with illustrious tombs, decreed by the nation, or erected at the expence of individuals: this part is open to general inspection; and the others more retired are displayed by the attendants for a trifling remuneration.

There are some other churches worthy of notice; for instance, the inside of St. Stephen, Walbrook, is admired for its lightness and elegance, and does honour to the memory of Sir Christopher Wren. The same may be said of the steeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are supposed to be the most complete of their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rule for such erections. Few churches in and about London are without some beauty; the simplicity of the portico of that in Covent Garden is worthy the purest ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin's-in-the-Fields would be noble and striking, could it be seen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taste, and many of the chapels have gracefulness and proportion to recommend them.

Westminster Hall, built by William Rufus, though on the outside it has no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is said to be the largest room in the world, the roof of which

which is not supported by pillars; it being 230 feet long, and 70 broad. Here are held the coronation-feasts of our kings and queens; and the courts of chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, and exchequer, are held in contiguous apartments.

The banqueting house at Whitehall is but a very small part of a noble palace, designed by Inigo Jones, for the royal residence; and, as it now stands, under all its disadvantages, its symmetry and ornaments are in the highest style and execution of architecture. There is an elegant ceiling painted by Rubens, representing the apotheosis of James I.

Near London-bridge, the Monument, a pillar 139 feet high, elevates a front above most of the spires, and is destined to commemorate the conflagration of London in the reign of Charles II. The column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obelisks and pillars of the ancients: it having a stair-cause in the middle to ascend to the balcony, which is about thirty feet short of the top, from whence there are other steps, made for persons to look out at the top of all, which is fashioned like an urn, with a flame issuing from it. On the base of the Monument, next the street, the destruction of the city, and the relief given to the sufferers by Charles II. and his brother, are emblematically represented in bass-relief. The north and south sides of the base have each a Latin inscription, the one describing its dreadful desolation, and the other its splendid resurrection; and on the east side is an inscription, showing when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by Sir Christopher Wren in 1671, and finished by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of thirteen thousand pounds.

The Tower of London was formerly the palace inhabited by our different monarchs till the time of Elizabeth, and is now remarkable for the curiosities which it contains.—The new edifice erected by the East India Company, has a considerable degree of elegance and magnificence: it has a fine portico in the centre; and in 1801 it was considerably enlarged.—The Bank is a structure of the Ionic order, and has lately been much enlarged and improved. It covers a great extent of ground, and is now completely insulated.—Somerset House forms an elegant specimen of the science of building, being one of the most splendid edifices in Europe, and is appropriated to various public uses.—The terrace of the Adelphi is a pleasing piece of architecture, and affords an interesting prospect of the river.—The King's or St. James's Palace is built of brick, and has an irregular external appearance; but the state apartments are regular and handsome. The eastern wing of this edifice was consumed by fire in 1808.

The sole use of this palace is for purposes of state.—The Queen's Palace, formerly called Buckingham House, aspires only to elegant convenience, but contains some valuable paintings, and an excellent library.—Carleton House, the residence of the Prince of Wales, has a fine front towards Pall Mall, and contains several splendid apartments, fitted up in the Chinese style.

The British Museum is deposited in Montague House, of which Sir Hans Sloane, Bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder; for its being established by parliament was only in consequence of his leaving, by will, his noble collection of natural history, his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him £50,000, to the use of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay £20,000 to his executors. To this were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuscripts, and a collection of books given by the late Major Edwards. His late Majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England; and it has been increased every year since by the accession of numerous, scarce, valuable, and interesting articles in every department of science, literature, antiquity, or artificial and natural productions. In 1806, and following years, parliament voted considerable sums for enlarging and repairing this magnificent building, which has been recently enriched by a great acquisition of Egyptian curiosities taken from the French.

The Mansion House, the residence of the Lord Mayor, is a massy and inelegant building: many of the apartments are dark and incommodious, whilst others are said to be airy and beautiful.—Guildhall is the place allotted for the business of the city; it was first erected in 1411, by voluntary subscription: it has lately been repaired, at considerable expence, when two beautifully painted windows were put up.—The Trinity House is a handsome edifice, lately erected on Tower Hill, the use of which is to superintend the interests of British shipping, &c.

The Royal Exchange was originally built by Sir Thomas Gresham in 1566, and has two principal fronts, with a piazza to each. In the area is a fine stone statue of King Charles II.; and over the piazzas, inside the building, are whole length figures of the kings and queens of England.—Near this building in 1809, was erected a beautiful free stone edifice, called the Auction Mart, intended to be appropriated for public sales, by the merchants, brokers, or others.

The Admiralty is a fine building of brick, in which the Lords Commissioners attend to transact the business of the naval department.—The Treas-

surey is a noble pile of building, with a fine stone front toward the park. The houses of Lords and Commons are situated behind Westminster Hall: the former has been recently repaired at a considerable expence; and the latter was once a chapel, dedicated to St. Stephen, and first converted to its present use by Henry VI.

Among the numerous places of public amusement, the two theatres of Drury Lane and Covent Garden stood prominently forward; that of old Drury being a magnificent structure. But both these edifices were destroyed by fire within the space of three months, in the autumn of 1808; since which time, the former has not yet been re-erected: but Covent Garden has arisen like a phoenix, from its ashes, with redoubled splendor; being one of the most handsome, elegant, extensive, and commodious places of public entertainment in the universe. Besides the above, may be enumerated the King's Theatre, or Opera House, a noble building; the Haymarket Theatre; the Circus, in St. George's Fields; Astley's Amphitheatre, near Westminster Bridge; Sadler's Wells; the Royalty; Olympic Pavilion; Sans Pareil, &c. added to which, in the summer months, are the amusements and splendid illuminations of Vauxhall.

The Inns of Court are spacious buildings, being the two Temples, Lincoln's Inn, and Gray's Inn, with several other smaller Inns of Chancery.

The societies for the promotion of literature are eminent and numerous. The Royal Society, in Somerset House, was established about the middle of the last century, and has added more to the stock of useful knowledge than any other. The Antiquarian Society was incorporated in 1751; and that for the Encouragement of the Arts, in 1753. The Royal Institution was founded in 1800; the London Institution in 1806; and the Surry Institution in 1808: all for the purpose of facilitating useful mechanical invention, and for teaching by lectures the application of science to the common purposes of life. Besides these there are Gresham College, where lectures are delivered in various languages; the Mineralogical Society; the Linnean Society, &c. &c.

The charitable institutions of the metropolis are numerous and magnificent; among the principal of which is Christ's Hospital, a royal foundation by Edward VI. for the instruction and maintenance of poor children. It is situated near Newgate Street, being an extensive and irregular building. There are at present upwards of 1000 children upon the foundation, besides a considerable number more in the preparatory school at Hertford:—The Charter House was erected in 1611, by Thomas Sutton, Esq. as an hospital for 50 boys, and 80 decayed gentlemen; and it also supports 20 students at the universities.—St. Bartholo-

meu's Hospital is a magnificent building of stone, near Smithfield, for the reception of the sick and maimed.—St. Thomas's, in the borough of Southwark, is for the same purpose. It was erected in 1693. Its annual disbursement is said to exceed £8000; being divided into 14 wards, containing 474 beds.—Guy's Hospital, adjoining to St. Thomas's, is perhaps the most extensive charitable foundation ever established by one man. It was erected by Thomas Guy, a bookseller in Lombard Street, who caused it to be built during his life-time; and at his death he bequeathed the enormous sum of £238,292 16s. (including the expences of the building) to endow it. It consists of two squares, containing 12 wards, and 435 beds.—Besides these there are several others; as the London Hospital, in Whitechapel road; St. George's Hospital, Hyde Park Corner; and the Middlesex Hospital in Mary-le-Bone: all these are excellent schools of medicine and surgery; and in each of them lectures are delivered by the most learned professors on these and other subjects. To those already mentioned, may be added others which have been erected for particular purposes: as St. Luke's, for lunatics; the Lock, for venereal complaints; the Foundling, for the reception of orphan children; the Magdalen, for penitent prostitutes; with numerous others, too tedious to mention.

The prisons of London indicate a melancholy idea of wretchedness and misery. The principal of these is Newgate, which presents a regular front, consisting of two wings, the debtor and felon's side, with the keeper's house between.—Giltspur Street Compter is occupied by debtors, persons fined, &c.—Ludgate Prison is for debtors free of the city, clergymen, proctors, and attorneys.—The Fleet Prison is a spacious receptacle for debtors; and the King's Bench, in St. George's Fields, is of the same description.—The Cold Bath Fields penitentiary house, which is constructed on the plan of the late Mr. Howard, was opened in 1794; and is principally used as a house of correction for different species of offenders. Besides these there are several others, too numerous for insertion.

The markets of London are numerous, and well supplied with the necessities and luxuries of life. Leadenhall market is famous for leather, small meat, and poultry. Newgate Market is particular for the sale of carcases wholesale, and butcher's meat. The Fleet Market for flesh, fish, and vegetables. Smithfield is the greatest market in the world for live cattle; as are also Billingsgate for fish, and Covent Garden for fruit, vegetables, and garden stuff of all kinds.

Notwithstanding the immense commerce of this large and populous city, the wharfs and quays on the

the banks of the river, are extremely mean and inconvenient; however, within a few years past, the most stupendous works for the accommodation and dispatch of trade have been erected. The West India Docks, on the Isle of Dogs, for the reception of the produce of the colonies, form a strong feature of the magnitude of our commerce. The warehouses are beautiful edifices; and the whole has an opulent and grand appearance. The Wapping, or London Docks, are improvements of immense extent; the large dock being capable of containing 200 vessels. And the East India Docks at Blackwall, constructed by that company for the purpose of loading and unloading their ships, are worthy the proprietors.

London is supplied with abundance of fresh water †, from the Thames and the New River, which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with the parish-officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire; for these plugs are no sooner opened than there are vast quantities of water to supply the engines. This abundance of water has been attended with another advantage; it has given rise to several opulent companies, who insure houses and goods from fire; the premium is small, and the recovery, in case of loss, easy and certain. Every one of these offices keeps a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in cases of fire; and who are, on all occasions, extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent: but should all their labours prove unsuccessful, the person who suffers by this devouring element has the comfort that must arise from a certainty of being paid the value (claimed upon oath) of what he has insured.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy; of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and, joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of consequences which made ample amends for the losses sustained by individuals: a new city arose on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it by no means had the character of magnificence or elegance in many particulars; and it is ever to be

lamented (such was the infatuation of those times) that the magnificent, elegant, and useful plan of the great Sir Christopher Wren was totally disregarded, and sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of private individuals; views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themselves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, the metropolis of this kingdom would then incontestibly have been the most magnificent and elegant city in the universe, and of consequence must, from the prodigious resort of foreigners of distinction and taste who would have visited it, become an inexhaustible fund of riches to this nation, and those immense sums expended by the city to remedy this defect, would not have been necessary. But, as the deplorable blindness of that age deprived us of so valuable an acquisition, it became absolutely necessary that some efforts should be made to render the present plan in a greater degree answerable to the character of the richest and most powerful people in the world: and this plan has been adopted, and is now going forward. It must be acknowledged that this spirit of improvement has effected wonders in the removal of obstructions, the pulling down of old and incommodious erections, and in widening and improving the principal streets; which now, for several miles in extent, present a continued series of uniform, elegant, and well built houses. The very elegant method of paving and enlightening the streets, is felt in the most sensible manner by all ranks of people. The roads are continued for several miles around, upon the same model; and, exclusive of lamps regularly placed on each side at short distances, are rendered more secure by watchmen stationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than those lights, when viewed at a distance, especially where the roads run across; and even the principal streets, such as Pall Mall, New Bond Street, Fleet Street, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

The figure of London is very irregular, being stretched out in buildings at the pleasure of the speculator. Its form, including Westminster and the borough of Southwark, approaches to an oblong; being upwards of seven miles in length, and two in breadth, where narrowest; and at the broadest about five. The streets are generally wide, few of them being so confined as not to admit two carriages abreast; and many of them wide enough to admit five or more to pass, especially in the new parts of the town, which may fairly be said to compose nearly one half of the whole. In several parts there are beautiful squares, containing from 100 to 1000 square feet.

† The whole supply of water for the use of the metropolis has been estimated at 20,000 cubic feet for every hour.

Grosvenor square is undoubtedly one of the first in London; it contains five acres, and in the centre is a statue of George the Second on horseback. Russel square is of very recent erection, containing nearly eight acres; the houses are beautiful specimens of modern architecture: on the south side of this square, a beautiful full length statue, mounted on a fine pedestal, was erected to the memory of the late Duke of Bedford, in 1809: Lincoln's-Inn square is the largest in London, and has lately been laid out in a handsome manner. Besides the above are Portman square, Cavendish square, Finsbury square, &c. &c.

Few cities can boast a more salubrious situation, the subjacent soil being pure gravel; by which advantage, united with extensive sewers, the houses are generally dry, cleanly, and healthy. Provisions and fuel are poured into the capital from distant parts of the kingdom; the latter article being coals, from the counties of Northumberland and Durham, transferred by sea, and thence denominated sea-coal. In 1790 the quantity said to be consumed amounted to 766,880 chaldrons; in 1800 they amounted to 800,000; and in 1809 to nearly 850,000 chaldrons. The smoke is esteemed to purify the dampness of the air, but injures the beauty of the edifices; the sublime architecture of St. Paul's, for instance, being obscured by its sombre appearance.

A tolerable idea of the vast extent of this great city may be formed, if we consider that it contains, besides the cathedral church of St. Paul, and Westminster Abbey, 135 parish churches, and upwards of 70 Episcopal chapels; 17 foreign Protestant chapels; 11 belonging to the Dutch, Germans, Danes, &c.; above 40 Independent meetings; 34 Presbyterian meetings; above 20 Baptist meetings; 12 Methodist chapels in the Wesleyan connection, exclusive of several others frequented by the followers of Whitefield and Lady Huntingdon; 11 Popish chapels; and 6 Jews' synagogues: making altogether nearly 400 places of worship within the Bills of Mortality. Besides the above, there are, in and near this city, upwards of 100 alms-houses; about 20 hospitals and infirmaries; 11 public prisons; 15 flesh markets; 1 market for live cattle; 2 others particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets, for coals, corn, hay, &c.; 15 inns of court; 30 public squares, besides those in other buildings, as the Temple, &c.; 3 bridges; 55 halls for companies; 8 public schools, called free schools; 150 charity schools, which provide clothing and instruction for upwards of 6000 poor children; upwards of 50 Sunday schools, where 20,000 children are educated gratuitously on that day; 207 inns; 450 taverns; 600 coffee-houses; 6000 ale-houses; 1900 hackney coaches; 400 hackney-chairs; 7500 streets, lanes; places, buildings,

alleys, &c. And, according to the return under the population act in 1801, London, including Westminster and the borough of Southwark, contained 121,229 houses, and 864,845 inhabitants; since which period to 1810 it is supposed to have received an increase of nearly 9000 houses, and 63,000 people; making a total of 130,000 houses, and 928,000 inhabitants; which, added to the continued influx of strangers into the metropolis, makes the existing population exceed 1,000,000; who, according to a statement recently published, are said annually to consume the following provisions: 110,000 bullocks; sheep and lambs, 776,000; calves, 210,100; hogs, 210,000; sucking pigs, 60,000; 6,980,000 gallons of milk; 700,000 quarters of wheat: ale and porter, in 1787, 1,176,856 barrels; in 1805, 1,300,000 barrels; and in 1809, 1,516,669 barrels: small beer, in 1809, 491,498 barrels; spirituous liquors, compounds, &c. 11,146,782 gallons; wine, 65,000 pipes; butter, 16,600,000 pounds; cheese, 21,100,000 pounds; vegetables and fruit to the amount of £3,000,000; fish about 14,500 boat-loads, exclusive of mackarel, which is very uncertain; and poultry and wild-fowl innumerable.

The city of London is divided into 26 wards; each of which is under the jurisdiction of an alderman, chosen by the liverymen of each ward, being housekeepers, in assemblies termed wardmotes. Out of these aldermen one is annually chosen, who has served the office of sheriff, on Michaelmas-day, to be the lord mayor, who enters on his office on the 9th of November. The two sheriffs are chosen annually by the livery in Guildhall, on Midsummer-day, not only for the city, but also for the county of Middlesex; the same persons being sheriffs for London, and jointly forming one sheriff for the county. The recorder is chosen by the lord mayor and aldermen, for their instruction and assistance in matters of justice, and proceedings according to law, of which he himself is a serjeant; he is the orator of the city on all extraordinary occasions, reads the addresses of the corporation to the king, and, at the sessions in the Old Bailey, delivers the sentence of the court. The chamberlain is chosen annually on Midsummer day, by the livery, though he is seldom discharged from his office, unless complained of. Besides these officers, there are a number of others; viz. the coroner, town-clerk, common-serjeant, and city-remembrancer. The suburbs in Middlesex are under the cognizance of the justices for the county; and there are also several police offices, at which magistrates sit every day for the examination of offenders. The military government of the city is lodged in a lieutenantancy, consisting of the lord mayor, aldermen, and other principal citizens, who receive their authority by a commission from the king. The trading part of the city is divided into 89 companies;

nies; though several of them can hardly be called so, having neither halls nor liveries: 55 of these have each a hall for transacting the business of the corporation; and this consists of a master, wardens, court of assistants, and livery: 12 of these companies are superior to the others, both in antiquity and wealth; and of one of these 12 the lord mayors generally make themselves free on their election. The principal incorporated societies of the merchants of this city, are the Hudson's Bay, Russia, Turkey, East India, Royal African, South Sea, and two Insurance companies.

London has sent four members to parliament ever since the 49th of Henry III.; who are elected by the livery, in Guildhall, amounting to about 10,500; the sheriffs being the returning officers.

2. **Westminster*.—Though we have already, in our general survey of London, introduced several particulars of this ancient city, there yet remain some others which it would be imprudent to omit. It is supposed to be named from its minster, or abbey, lying westward of the city of London. In ancient times it contained nothing remarkable, except its stately abbey; which was situated on a marshy island, called Thorney; surrounded on one side by the Thames, and on the other by a branch of the same river, called Long Ditch. For many ages it was entirely distinct from London; and the Strand was a road leading thereto, open on one side to the Thames, and on the other to the fields. In 1353 this road was so ruinous that Edward III. ordered a tax to be laid on all goods carried from London to Westminster, for its repair: and it was not till 1559, the first year of Elizabeth, that a street was formed; when all the houses on the south side had gardens to the river, and the north side was a line of houses from Charing, then a small village, to Temple-bar; all beyond was country. St. Martin was literally in the fields; and St. Giles was a distinct village. But in 1602, the last of the before-mentioned queen, whose peaceful and happy reign laid the foundation of our present prosperity, most considerable additions were made to the north of the long line of street just described: St. Martin's lane was built on both sides; Broad-street and Holborn were completely formed into streets, all the way to Snow-hill; Covent-garden and Lincolns-Inn Fields were built; and Drury-lane and Long Acre rose in the same period: since which æra it has gradually increased, to the present time. It contains nine parishes. The government and liberties thereof are under the jurisdiction of the dean and chapter of Westminster; who, ever since the Reformation, have deputed their civil authority to a high steward, whom they appoint, usually a nobleman, and chosen for life; a deputy steward,

chosen by the high steward; and a high bailiff, nominated by the dean, and confirmed by the high steward. Westminster sends two members to parliament, elected by the householders. The numerous public buildings, &c. have already been enumerated under the last article, *London*.

3. *Brentford*, situated on the river Thames, seven miles from London, is named from its situation at the mouth of the small river Brent, over which it had a ford. This town affords employment to its numerous poor, having several extensive manufactories, a pottery, distillery, and a flour mill on the same plan as the late Albion mills. The streets are tolerably well built, and now well paved, having undergone considerable improvements of late. The county elections for members of parliament are held here. In 1801 here were 849 houses, and 5035 inhabitants.

Contiguous to the metropolis are numerous well built and elegant villages, which, in point of extent, might vie with some of our principal cities; but for which, in a work of this kind, we have not room for insertion.

HERTFORDSHIRE,

To the north of Middlesex, contains 302,080 acres, all of which are in a state of cultivation, about three-fourths in tillage, and the remainder in pasturage. The climate is wholesome, and the soil fertile, producing the finest wheat in the kingdom. It has no manufactories, if we except several extensive paper mills. The chief places are,

1. *Hertford*, on the river Lea, 21 miles north from London, an ancient borough, and the county town of this shire. It is tolerably well built, with several good streets, nearly in the form of a Roman Y. In this town the governors of Christ's Hospital in London, have erected a kind of Preparatory School, for the instruction of about 500 of the younger children of that charity: the school is a roomy building, with houses for the principal masters, &c. The county gaol and penitentiary house is a new, commodious, and extensive building. The county assizes being held here, a noble shire-hall was erected in 1780. Here are two neat parish churches, with places of worship for the different Dissenters. This town has but little trade or manufacture. It 1801 it had 515 houses, and 3360 inhabitants.

2. *St. Albans*, a very ancient borough town, on a branch of the river Coln. It was formerly called *Verulam* by the Romans; and *Watlingcester* by the Saxons; but little remains of these are now to be seen. St. Alban, the proto-martyr of Britain, who suffered in Dioclesian's persecution, is said to have been buried here; which gave name to the town. Here are four churches; that of St. Alban's, for its largeness, beauty, and antiquity,

quity, may vie with the first in the kingdom, having several curious ancient monuments. This town is beautifully situated, and contains several good streets of well built houses, paved after the London method. Here are several well endowed alms-houses; with other charitable institutions. It contains 730 houses, and 4304 inhabitants.

3. *Ware*, an ancient town on the river Lea, so called from a wear, or dam, erected here by the Danes, to protect themselves from Alfred. The town consists principally of one long street, nearly a mile in length, with a few smaller ones intersecting it: the houses are irregular; and the town, in general, is inhabited by the lower classes of society. It has 557 houses, and 2950 inhabitants.

ESSEX,

To the east of Hertfordshire, contains 1,240,000 acres, of which about 1,200,000 are in a cultivated state. The northern part of the county being elevated is pure and healthy; but toward the south it is damp and aguish. The whole county is well stored with provisions; and vast numbers of all kinds of eattle are sent from hence to the London markets. The chief manufactures are stuffs and baize; carried on principally in Colchester, and its vicinity. The chief towns are,

1. *Colchester*, a large and populous borough-town, on the river Coln, which passes through it, and is made navigable for small craft up to the Hithe, a long street, which may be called the Wapping of Colchester, where there is a convenient quay; and at Vennoe, within three miles of it, is a good custom house. Here is a venerable castle, said to have been built by Edward, son of Alfred the Great, which suffered greatly during the civil wars; its remains are now converted into a prison. This, and all the towns round it, are noted for making baize, of which great quantities are exported. Colchester is also remarkable for excellent oysters.

Here are sixteen parish churches, several of which are neat edifices; with places of worship for all denominations of Dissenters. The principal streets are wide and spacious; while others are narrow and incommodious. In 1801 it had 1989 houses, and 11,520 inhabitants.

2. *Chelmsford*, which stands in a beautiful plain, having the little river Chelmer running through it, over which there is a bridge, is a neat town almost in the centre of the county. Its situation renders it the most frequented; being called the shire-town. It consists of four streets; the principal one is regular, and well built: at the upper end, on an ascent, stands the shire-hall, a magnificent building, newly erected; to the left of this, appears the church, a stately structure, with a square stone tower and lofty spire. The county gaol was

erected in 1777, on the plan of the late Mr. Howard, and is a noble building. The town of Chelmsford is greatly improved within the last few years; most of the nuisances having been removed. It contains 646 houses, and 5755 inhabitants.

3. *Harwich*, an ancient borough, and sea-port town, situated where the rivers Stour and Orwell unite, and form a large bay, falling afterwards into the German Ocean by a streight nearly three miles wide at high water, which is defended by a strong fort. The houses are, in general, well built; but the streets are narrow, and paved with a kind of clay, from a petrifying water in the neighbourhood, which is soon as hard as stone: and here is a neat market-place, well supplied with all kinds of provisions. The town has but little trade; being chiefly supported by the foreign packet-boats, and, of late years, by parties for sea-bathing. It contains 487 houses, and 2761 inhabitants.

KENT,

To the south of Essex, contains 896,000 acres, the principal part of which is in a state of cultivation. The climate is, in general, foggy and warm, being tolerably healthy; but the marshy parts are very unwholesome, the inhabitants being much troubled with the ague. The principal produce are hops, fruit, fat oxen, and oak timber. It has but few manufactures. The chief places are,

1. *Canterbury*, a very ancient city, and the metropolitan see of all England, situated in a pleasant valley on the river Stour. The cathedral is a noble pile of Gothic architecture; first erected in 1174, but not entirely completed till the reign of Henry V. It suffered much during the civil wars, Cromwell having made it a stable for his dragons; but after the Reformation it was repaired. Seven kings have been interred in this church; and St. Augustine, with the seven archbishops that succeeded him, lie in one vault. Here was the shrine of Thomas à Becket, so famous for its riches offered by votaries and pilgrims from most parts of the universe. Among the ruins of the Roman and Saxon buildings, and of many religious houses, are the walls of a chapel, said to have been a Christian temple at the time of St. Augustine. Two gates of the monastery, built by Ethelbert king of Kent, about the year 600, at the request of Austin the monk, are still remaining. Here are sixteen parishes; many of the churches belonging to which are handsome edifices. This city consists chiefly of four principal streets, in the form of a cross; and is divided into 6 wards, subdivided into 21 streets, 56 lanes, and 62 alleys. Great improvements have been made here within the last few years: the streets have been newly paved

paved and lighted, after the London method; and most of the old and projecting buildings have been removed. The principal manufactures of Canterbury are worsted, silk, and cotton, and a peculiar kind called Canterbury muslins. The city is surrounded on all sides with extensive hop-grounds, and is famed for its excellent brawn. Here is a good grammar school, founded by Henry VIII. with several alms-houses, and other charitable foundations. In 1801 it was returned as containing 2018 houses, and 10,498 inhabitants.

2. **Rochester*, an ancient city on the river Medway, over which it has a noble bridge of eleven arches, consists of three parishes, in one of which is the cathedral, an ancient fabric, built in the eleventh century by Bishop Gundulphus; who also erected a castle here on the north side of the cathedral, which, though now in ruins, is still so lofty as to be seen at the distance of thirty miles. The principal streets of Rochester are wide and well paved; but several of the others are narrow and inconvenient. The town-hall is a handsome brick structure, supported by stone columns of the Doric order. Here is a poor-house well conducted. It contains 940 houses, and 5645 inhabitants, exclusive of *Chatham* and *Stroud*, which may not be improperly reckoned suburbs to this city; in the former of which is a royal dock-yard, begun by Queen Elizabeth, and which is now so improved, that it is the first arsenal in the world, being about a mile in length, including the ordinance wharf; having many neat houses for the different officers. In this yard are four docks for repairing, and six slips for building new ships. Several of the buildings are of immense extent, appropriated for different naval manufactures. In this town is an hospital for decayed shipwrights and mariners, called Sir John Hawkins's Hospital, who founded it in 1592. This hospital has lately been rebuilt on a commodious and extensive plan. The houses and inhabitants of this town have greatly increased of late years, amounting in 1801 to 2430 houses, and 14,630 inhabitants. *Stroud* contains 196 houses, and 1172 inhabitants; making altogether a grand total, for Rochester and its suburbs, of 3566 houses, and 21,447 inhabitants.

3. *Maidstone*, a borough-town on the river Medway, is the place where the business of the county is transacted, and generally called the county-town. It consists of four principal streets, which meet at the market-cross, and is formed principally of modern and well built houses. The church is a large handsome building, with a good library. The county-gaol is a very extensive strong modern building, and the assizes for the county are held in it. Here are four charity schools, and a neat modern built theatre. The greatest trade of the town arises from the extensive hop-plantation

in the neighbourhood, and from large orchards of cherries, which are peculiar to this county. It contains 1330 houses, and 8027 inhabitants.

4. **Deptford*, a large and populous town on the south banks of the river Thames, five miles from London. It is divided into Lower and Upper Deptford, having a stone bridge over the little river Ravensworth, where was formerly a deep ford, from whence the town is named. Here are several large dock-yards, particularly that called the king's yard, where ships for the royal navy are built: it was first erected in the time of Henry VIII.; and, together with the store-houses, which form a square, covers thirty-one acres of ground, containing two wet docks, three slips, a bason, two ponds for masts, with various manufactories for anchors, cables, blocks, &c. &c. and apartments for the numerous officers employed. Deptford contains two churches, one of which, dedicated to St. Paul, is a handsome edifice. In 1801 it had 3068 houses, and 17,548 inhabitants.

5. **Greenwich*, a considerable town, situated likewise on the banks of the Thames, six miles east from London. Its name has been derived from *Grenewic*, which, in the Saxon language, signifies a green village. This place was formerly the favoured residence of several of our kings; its first palace being supposed to have been built about 1300. Henry IV. dated his will here—Edward IV. took great pleasure at his mansion in this manor—Henry VIII. was born here, and baptized in the parish church; and afterwards married here to his first queen, Catherine of Arragon—Edward VI. died here—Queen Elizabeth held her splendid court at Greenwich; and it was a favourite place of retirement of Charles I.—His son, Charles II. rebuilt one of the wings, at considerable expence, intending to erect a magnificent palace, but dying before it was carried into execution, soon after the revolution, a project was devised for providing an asylum for maimed and disabled seamen in the British navy; and on the recommendation of Sir Christopher Wren, this place was adopted, where one of the noblest and most magnificent buildings in Europe was erected. The town of Greenwich has greatly increased of late years in size and population; and in the neighbourhood are several beautiful villas. In 1801 it had 2067 houses, and 14,339 inhabitants.

6. *Dover*, an ancient borough and sea-port town, situated at the south-east part of the county, nearly opposite the town of Calais, in France. The town consists of two parts, connected together by a long narrow street. It was formerly divided into twenty-four wards, but now reduced to thirteen. The streets are tolerably built, with several good houses. The market-place is spacious, in which is the town-hall, an ancient fabric, that contains several

several fine paintings. Here are also a good assembly room, a neat theatre, and a good free school. The town of Dover formerly had seven churches, but they are now reduced to two. It is famous for its ancient castle, which is said by some to have been founded by Julius Cæsar, while others assert that Claudius was the founder. It is a strong fortress, consisting of several towers, built upon a rock, which, before the introduction of gunpowder, was considered impregnable. In time of peace this town is a great thoroughfare for persons passing to and from France, the channel here being only nine leagues across; and with a fair wind the voyage is frequently made in one tide. The harbour has been considerably improved of late years; but still will only admit vessels of small burden. In 1801 here were 3068 houses, and 13,418 inhabitants.

7. *Deal*, a considerable sea-port town, supposed to be the *Dola* of Julius Cæsar, being the place where he landed on his invasion of Britain. In the upper part of the town the streets are broad and spacious; but in the lower they are narrow and dirty; a defect generally observable in sea-ports, there being the least room where there is the most business. Besides the mother church, here is a neat chapel of ease. It contains 906 houses, and 5420 inhabitants.

8. **Margate*, a neat watering-place, situated at the mouth of the river Thames. The town is pleasantly situated on the ascent of a hill, and owes its principal prosperity to an act of parliament obtained in 1787, to rebuild the pier with stone; since which time the town has undergone great improvements, and is become a very fashionable resort for sea-bathing, for which there is excellent accommodation. In 1801 it had 1004 houses, and 4766 inhabitants.

SUSSEX,

To the west of Kent, contains 935,040 square acres, 600,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The climate of this county is various, being reckoned aguish towards the coast; but in the other parts it may be deemed healthy. The soil is generally clay, intermixed with sandy wastes. Its principal products are corn, hops, wool, cattle, and timber. The chief places are,

1. *Chichester*, situated on a plain, near an arm of the sea. It is a very neat small city, walled about in a circular form; and had formerly four gates opening to the four principal streets, which meet in the centre, where is a beautiful cross. The streets are broad, spacious, and well paved. All the space or quarter between where the west and south gates stood, is taken up with the cathedral, the bishop's palace, the dean's, prebendaries', and vicar's houses. Here are six parish

churches, beside the cathedral, which is not large, but very neat, with a high stone spire of an octagonal form, esteemed a complete piece of architecture. Here are an ancient town-hall and neat theatre, and a very commodious palace, the residence of the bishop. In 1801 it had 821 houses, and 4744 inhabitants.

2. **Brightelmstone*, or, as it is more generally called, *Brighton*, was formerly a fishing town, but is now a fashionable resort for sea-bathing; within these few years being enlarged with many new streets and elegant buildings, particularly the Steine and the Crescent; the former of which is the general parade for the company. Beside this an extensive beach extends four miles under lofty cliffs, and on the other side are wide open downs, comprised of numerous verdant hills, diversified with winding cavities. Towards Shoreham are some pits of a kind of bitumen, which might be used in some manufacture. When dried and rolled by the waves, it forms balls of various sizes, frequently found on the beach, and formerly used as fuel by the poor, though since forbidden on account of the noxious smell. Brighton not only presents the nearest open shore to the metropolis, but is distinguished for the peculiar mildness and salubrity of the air. The Prince of Wales has an elegant mansion here, called the Pavilion, fitted up with all the assistance of taste and art; it was first erected in 1784, but has since been considerably enlarged; the interior is fitted up with the greatest magnificence, the furniture being mostly Chinese. Here are numerous other magnificent mansions, to enumerate which would exceed our limits. The church stands on a hill a small distance from the town, with a lofty square tower, which may be seen to a considerable distance at sea; having the figure of a dolphin for a fane. From the great increase of the population of late years, a handsome chapel royal has lately been erected. There are likewise chapels and meeting-houses for the different Dissenters. In 1801 this town was returned as containing 1282 houses, and 7339 inhabitants; but in 1810 it was asserted to contain upwards of 2000 houses, and 10,000 inhabitants.

3. *Lewes*, an ancient borough-town, situated on the river Ouse. It is a handsome town, standing in an open champagne country, and was formerly encompassed with walls. The river has been made navigable up to the town, in which are several good charities. It consists of six parishes, with neat churches. In 1801 it had 684 houses, and 4432 inhabitants.

SURREY,

To the north of Sussex, contains 519,000 acres, all of which, with the exception of 40,000, are in a state

state of cultivation. The climate is pleasant and healthy; and the soil fertile. It has no manufactures of consequence. The chief places are,

1. **Southwark*, of which a partial account has already been given in our description of London, to which the following particulars may not be thought irrelevant. Its name is supposed to be derived from its situation, where formerly works were erected for the defence of the metropolis, hence called the *South work*, which in process of time was corrupted into its present name. It was long a distinct place from the city of London; but, in consequence of the great inconvenience arising from the escape of delinquents into this place, its jurisdiction was granted to the city of London, on the payment of £10 annually. This power, however, not being found sufficient to remedy the evil, a more intimate connection was thought necessary; and, in the reign of Edward VI. for a valuable consideration paid to the crown, it was formed into a twenty-sixth ward, called Bridge Ward without; and in consequence of this it was subject to the Lord Mayor of London, with its steward and bailiff. It consists of six parishes, in one of which is the church of St. Mary Overy, or St. Saviour's, which is a venerable edifice, said to be the largest parish-church in England. The other public buildings have already been described. In 1801 it contained 10,933 houses, and 67,448 inhabitants.

2. **Croydon*, a flourishing town, about ten miles from London. It is in general well built; and pleasantly situated on the edge of Banstead Downs. The church is a fine Gothic structure, and contains several beautiful monuments, particularly of the archbishops of Canterbury. Its principal trade arises from the manufacture of printed cottons, paper, and bleaching-grounds. In 1801 it had 1020 houses, and 5743 inhabitants.

3. *Richmond*, anciently called *Shene*, is remarkable for its beautiful situation and royal palace, in which are many curious paintings by the most eminent masters. Queen Caroline took great delight here; and his present Majesty has made great improvements in the gardens of this delightful place. The town runs up the hill a full mile to the park, which commands a beautiful view, with small gardens declining all the way to the Thames, over which has been erected a very neat bridge, of five arches. The town contains 825 houses, and 4628 inhabitants.

4. *Kingston-upon-Thames*, is so called from its situation on that river; over which it has a wooden bridge. The church is a handsome building; and here is a spacious town-hall, in which the assizes for the county are sometimes held. It contains 676 houses, and 3793 inhabitants.

5. *Guildford*, a well built borough-town, on the

river Wey, which is navigable from thence to the Thames. Not far from the river are the ruinous walls of an old castle; this place having, in the Saxon times, been a royal villa, where many of our kings kept their festivals. Here are three parish-churches; an elegant county-hall, erected in 1789, with suitable offices; and a neat theatre. The road to Chichester and Portsmouth lies through this town, which has long been famous for good inns and accommodations. It contains almshouses, liberally endowed, and the remains of a once famous manufactory of cloth. In the neighbourhood are the walls of what was formerly called St. Catherine's Chapel, built with a sort of tile, which when broken has the appearance of iron, and the cement of them is almost impenetrable. The road leading from Guildford to Farnham is remarkable for running along up the ridge of an high chalky hill, called St. Catherine's, no wider than the road itself, from whence there is a delightful prospect. Guildford contains 464 houses, and 2464 inhabitants.

HAMPSHIRE,

To the south-west of Surry, contains 1,112,000 acres, of which upwards of 900,000 are in a state of cultivation, exclusive of the Isle of Wight. The air, in the higher parts, is clear and pure; and towards the sea, mild, but rather inclined to moisture. There are but few manufactures of consequence; and those only of cloth, shalloons, and coarse linens. The chief places are,

1. *Winchester*, a respectable city, with many vestiges of ancient fame and splendor, was formerly the capital of all England, from the dissolution of the Heptarchy till the time of Alfred. It is situated in a bottom, amid open chalky downs, upon the small river Itchyn. The cathedral rather gives an idea of majestic gravity than of magnificence, and has no spire, having been erected before that mode of architecture was used. The remains of several Saxon monarchs are here preserved with reverence. Not far from the cathedral stands the celebrated college founded by William of Wickham, and which has educated many illustrious characters. Beside the cathedral, here are eight other churches, most of which are handsome structures. In the centre of this city is a small but most elegant Gothic cross; and at the western extremity is the shell of a palace, built under the direction of Sir Christopher Wren, but it is heavy and inelegant; it was begun by Charles II. but left unfinished at his death. It has since been used for French prisoners; and in 1796 was the residence of upwards of 600 emigrant priests. Most of the buildings of this city have the appearance of antiquity; but the streets are broad and remarkably clean. The town-hall is a handsome building, adorned with a statue of queen Anne.

In

In 1788 a new and spacious county-gaol was erected on the Howardian plan. This city has several good charitable endowments; and contains 791 houses, and 5826 inhabitants.

2. *Southampton*, a handsome borough-town, 12 miles from Winchester, stands between two large rivers, the Itchyn and the Test, that fall here into that called Southampton Water. It was formerly surrounded with walls, which are in many places quite destroyed, but in others they still present a venerable appearance. Henry VI. made it a county of itself, which renders it independent of the lord lieutenant. The chief street is one of the broadest and longest in England. It has one large quay, and another called West Quay, where the Guernsey and Jersey vessels always anchor, with which islands this place has a considerable trade. The approach to the town, from the London road, is extremely pleasant; having a beautiful view of Southampton Water, the Isle of Wight, and the scenery of the New Forest. The town is well paved and lighted, and well supplied with water, brought from a considerable distance in pipes. It contains five parish churches, all of which are handsome edifices: here are many good charity schools, besides several alms-houses. In 1801 this town contained 1509 houses, and 7913 inhabitants.

3. * *Portsmouth*, an ancient borough and sea-port, by many considered the great key of England, being regularly fortified, and standing at the entrance of a creek, on the island of Portsea. It is defended by South-sea-castle, Block-house-castle, and a chain that goes across the harbour from the round tower to the opposite shore. This is the narrowest point of entrance to a large and safe harbour. The dock-yard is exceedingly convenient, and the most complete in the world; possessing within itself all the various manufactories necessary for supplying its different naval equipments. The docks and yards resemble a distinct town, there being particular rows of buildings, erected at the public expence, for all the principal officers; and within the works is a royal academy. The common, as it is called, is the residence chiefly of the artificers employed, who are said to exceed 3000 in number. The streets of Portsmouth are mostly narrow and dirty; and always in a bustle, but more particularly so in war-time. It has one very magnificent church, having on the top of the steeple a ship for a weather-cock, and places of worship for Dissenters of all denominations.

Portsmouth has a governor and a garrison, with a division of marines, stationed in very commodious barracks; it has also a port-admiral, and all the various revenue officers. In 1801 Portsmouth, including Portsea, which are generally reckoned one town, contained 5523 houses, and 33,226 inhabitants.

4. * *Gosport*, a considerable town on the west side of Portsmouth harbour, over which there is a constant ferry. It is a place of great trade and business, but more particularly so in time of war. Here is an extensive iron-foundry, in which various articles are cast for the use of the navy. A little to the south of this town is Haslar Hospital, a noble building, for the cure of the sick and wounded seamen in his Majesty's service. In 1801 this town had 1863 houses, and 11,295 inhabitants.

5. *Andover*, a neat borough-town, situated on the river Ande, over which it has an old bridge, from whence it is named. It is a healthy and populous place, carrying on a considerable traffic in shalloons, matting, &c. Several of the streets are elegant and spacious; but the church is a very ancient building, devoid of ornament. The market-house is a handsome modern building; and four miles off is held the great annual fair of Waghill, being the largest in the kingdom for cattle, cheese, hops, &c. which lasts 14 days. This town has 658 houses, and 3304 inhabitants.

DORSETSHIRE,

To the west of Hampshire, contains nearly 775,000 acres, of which about 700,000 are in a state of cultivation. The climate is mild and salubrious. It is one of the pleasantest and most fertile counties in the kingdom; being noted for its excellent butter, and abounding in corn, cattle, and sheep: the number of the latter animals is estimated at 800,000. The Isle of Portland is famous for quarries of the finest and most durable free stone, with which St. Paul's church, Westminster-bridge, &c. were erected; and that of Purbeck is noted for affording the best tobacco-pipe clay in England. The chief towns are,

1. *Dorchester*, once the most considerable station of the Romans in those parts. They had a camp near it, with five trenches, inclosing ten acres, the vestiges of which are still visible at a place called Maiden Castle, about a mile from the town. This borough is situated on an ascent, on the banks of the river Frome; and consists chiefly of four good streets, running to the four cardinal points, neatly paved, with the houses in general regularly built of stone; and comprising three parishes. Here is a newly erected town-hall, and market-place; with a commodious prison on Howard's plan. The Ikenild street of the Romans is plainly traced here; and the foundations of the old wall appear quite round the town, except toward the east, where the ditch is filled up, and a street built upon it; yet the place is still called the Walls. The Romans had an amphitheatre in the neighbourhood, now called Maumbury, the terrace on the top of which is a noted place for the inhabitants to walk

walk on, having an elegant prospect of the town and country around it. It contains 344 houses, and 2402 inhabitants.

2. *Poole*, a considerable borough and sea-port, supposed to have taken its name from the bay or pool of water which nearly surrounds the town. It is about three-quarters of a mile long, and half a mile broad; consisting of three or four principal streets running nearly from north-east to south-west, besides a cross street, parallel to the quay, with several intersecting lanes. The buildings are in general low; but, of late years, this town has received several handsome additions. The new town-hall is an elegant structure, with convenient shambles underneath: the church is an ancient edifice, which has lately been repaired at considerable expence. The chief traffic of the place arises from the Newfoundland trade and fishery, which is an excellent nursery for the navy. The harbour is one of the best and safest in the channel; as the ground is every where soft, with sufficient depth of water to come up to the quays, several of which are very spacious. In 1801 this town had 949 houses, and 4761 inhabitants.

3. **Weymouth*, united with *Melcombe Regis*, which form but one sea-port, joined by a wooden bridge of 17 arches. The one forms a contrast to the other; Melcombe being neither large nor elegant, while Weymouth has all the embellishment of modern buildings and spacious streets. The bay forms a beautiful semicircle of two miles, protected from winds and tempests by the surrounding hills, on the shores of which are several beautiful fashionable promenades, particularly the Esplanade, which is full half a mile long and thirty feet broad, affording a beautiful prospect of the bay, and Portland isles. The town of Weymouth, thirty or forty years ago, was but small and indifferently built; but from its late fashionable resort, as a bathing place, it is greatly enlarged, with many beautiful and superb edifices. This place has of late years been the occasional resort of the different branches of the royal family, who, during the season, reside in an erection of the late Duke of Gloucester, from its founder called Gloucester Lodge. The boroughs of Weymouth and Melcombe are united together into one corporation; which send four members to the imperial parliament. In 1801 they contained 659 houses, and 3617 inhabitants.

4. *Sherborne*, a very ancient town, formerly a bishopric, which in the eleventh century was removed to Salisbury. The church is a fine edifice, beautifully decorated in the inside, and containing several ancient Saxon monuments of kings and nobles. The town is pleasantly situated on the side of a hill, and has several good buildings. It contains 581 houses, and 3281 inhabitants.

5. *Bridport*, an ancient borough-town, on the river Brid, not far from the sea. It once had a convenient harbour, which is now nearly choked up with sand. The town contains several good streets, much improved of late years; in the centre of which has recently been erected a very handsome market-house. The chief manufactures of this place are twine, sail-cloth, and hats. It contains 387 houses, and 3117 inhabitants.

WILTSHIRE,

North-east from Dorsetshire, contains 821,120 square acres, 400,000 of which are in a state of cultivation; and the greatest part of the remainder comprises what is known by the name of the Wiltshire Downs, on which are fed vast numbers of sheep, from whose fleeces are derived the principal manufactures of the county; being chiefly that of superfine broad-cloths, carpets, &c. The air is sharp, but salubrious; and this county is famous for excellent bacon. The chief places are,

1. *Salisbury*, a large, neat, and well built city, situated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the west and south, and by the Bourne on the east. The streets are in general spacious, and built at right angles, containing several well built houses. The market-place is very extensive, in the form of a handsome open square, at the south-west corner of which is a magnificent town-house, erected in 1795. The cathedral, which was finished in 1358, at the expence of above £26,000, an enormous sum for that period, is, as a Gothic building, the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful spire of free-stone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the tallest in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The church has a cloister, which is 150 feet square, and of as fine workmanship as any in England. The chapter-house, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one small pillar in the centre, so much too weak, in appearance, for the support of such a prodigious weight, that the construction of this building is thought one of the greatest curiosities in England. The whole cathedral has, of late years, undergone a thorough repair, and received considerable improvement.

Here is a considerable manufacture of flannels, the cloths called Salisbury whites, cutlery goods, and hardware; the superiority of the scissars being particularly noted. In 1801 this city had 1489 houses, and 7768 inhabitants.

2. *Bradford*, an extensive manufacturing town, on the river Avon. Its name is supposed to be derived from a broad ford which was formerly here
over

over the river, where there is now a neat bridge. The town is situated within the cove of a hill, which protects it from the north winds. The streets are narrow and irregular; but there are several good houses intermixed. Here are many extensive manufactories for making the finest broad cloths, who excel particularly in the nicest mixtures. Here were 1254 houses, and 7302 inhabitants, in 1801.

3. *Trowbridge*, situated on the small river Were, a branch of the Avon, like Bradford, has considerable manufactories of broad cloth and kerseymeres. It is an ill built, irregular place, containing 1018 houses, and 5799 inhabitants.

4. *Warminster*, a considerable town on the small river Welly. The houses are mostly built of rough stone, on an inelegant plan. The parish church, situated at the west end of the town, is a spacious and handsome building; and here is also a neat chapel of ease, together with chapels for Methodists and Dissenters, of all denominations. This town contains 961 houses, and 4982 inhabitants.

3. *Devises*, an ancient borough, consisting of three parishes. It stands on an eminence; and water is remarkably scarce. The houses are old, and mostly built of timber. Here are two churches; with chapels for the different denominations of Dissenters. The principal manufactures are druggets, serges, kerseymeres, &c. This town contains 890 houses, and 4891 inhabitants.

6. *Calne*, a very ancient borough-town, supposed to have risen out of the ruins of an old Roman colony. The town is well built, with several good streets. The principal commerce of the place arises from the clothing branch. It contains 775 houses, and 3676 inhabitants.

SOMERSETSHIRE,

To the west of Wiltshire, contains 991,360 acres about 900,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The climate is mild and salubrious, and the soil is various; but in general it is a very fertile county, and more celebrated for its mineral waters than any other in the kingdom. The chief places are,

1. **Bristol*, the second city in the kingdom in point of extent, is large and flourishing; though much of its commerce with the West Indies and America has passed to Liverpool. It gradually rose to eminence in the Anglo-Saxon period, and was so opulent and flourishing in the reign of Henry II. that, besides other charters, he granted it the possession of Dublin in Ireland, and a colony from Bristol was accordingly transplanted. The trade with the southern parts of Ireland has continued chiefly to centre in this city; even in the reign of Stephen, an ancient writer informs us, the port of Bristol was replete with vessels from Ire-

land, Norway, and other parts of Europe. This city is pleasantly situated at the confluence of the Frome with the Avon. The cathedral is a large church of Gothic construction: it is adorned with painted windows, and several beautiful monuments. Besides the cathedral, here are seventeen other churches: that of St. Mary Redcliffe, a beautiful edifice, was founded in the thirteenth century, and improved and repaired by an opulent merchant, who had been five times mayor of this city. Here are also places of worship for the Methodists, Dissenters, Quakers, and Roman Catholics; together with a neat Jews' synagogue. The houses in the old part of the city are mostly of timber, ill built, with the upper stories projecting till they approach each other at the top; these streets being generally narrow, dirty, and badly paved: but there are many new streets, entirely built of brick and stone, other buildings being prohibited by act of parliament. The interior of the city is close, but many of the streets have been lately much widened. The suburbs are composed of elegant and spacious buildings, principally inhabited by gentry, merchants, and retired tradesmen, or let as lodgings; having several well paved streets. The whole city is well lighted; and amply supplied with excellent water, both from pumps and conduits. The exchange and custom-house are fine buildings, adapted to a commercial city. Here are thirteen city companies, some of which have handsome and spacious halls. The principal manufactures of Bristol are glass, copper, soap, sadlery, shoes, white lead, earthenware, &c. &c.; which, together with every article of clothing, supplied from the circumjacent country, are exported by the merchants to America and the colonies; from whence they import sugar, rum, cotton, and other produce, with which this city supplies the west of England and South Wales. Bristol has numerous hospitals, and other charitable institutions, several of which are well endowed, and others are supported by voluntary subscriptions from the inhabitants. The common sewers which run under the streets, render the city remarkably clean; but for fear of damaging the arches of the vaults underneath, carts are not admitted here, every thing being conveyed by sledges, to the no small danger of the foot passengers. Here is an extensive and commodious quay for the loading and unloading of vessels, besides several considerable docks, particularly those of very recent construction, which no doubt will prove of incalculable advantage to this port. The Hot Wells in the neighbourhood appear to have been known in 1480; but the water was chiefly used externally till the year 1670, when an experiment was made of it in a diabetes, and a cure effected by it. Since that period its reputation has increased, and many commodious

commodious and elegant erections have contributed to recommend these wells to invalids. In the adjacent rocks are found beautiful crystals, which, before the introduction of artificial ones, were greatly in fashion for female ornaments. The population of Bristol is said to have amounted to no more than 15,000 in 1700; in 1750 it was estimated at about 40,000; and, according to the parliamentary returns in 1801, it contained 10,403 houses, and 63,645 inhabitants.

2. **Bath*, an ancient city on the river Avon, which has been made navigable from Bristol, and over which is a handsome stone bridge. It is surrounded nearly on all sides by hills, and formerly appears to have been walled. This city is deemed one of the finest in the kingdom, consisting chiefly of new and elegant buildings, with several beautiful squares. Among the recent erections, that of the Crescent forms a striking feature, standing on an eminence, and which, with several other crescents, places, &c. in its vicinity, enjoys all the advantages of air, prospect, and scenery. Here are eight churches within and without the city, none of which are entitled to particular description; besides meeting-houses for all persuasions of Christians; together with a noble infirmary, or general hospital, capable of maintaining 150 patients; and several other excellent charitable endowments.

Bath was celebrated in the time of the Romans for its medicinal waters, called by Ptolemy the Hot Waters; by Antoninus, the Waters of the Sun. By the Britons this place was called *Caer Baden*, the City of Bath; and by the Saxons *Akmancester*, or the City of Valetudinarians. The names of the several baths are, the King's Bath, the Queen's Bath, the Cross Bath, and the Hot Bath. In the King's Bath is a statue of Bladud, the eighth king of the Britons, with an inscription under it, importing that he discovered the use of these baths 863 years before Christ.

The Bath waters are used both externally and internally, chiefly in gouty, bilious, and paralytic cases: the seasons for drinking them are spring and autumn. The spring season begins with April, and ends with June; though fashion has now perverted it, and Midsummer and December are the times when the *quality* repair to that city: the autumn season begins with September, and lasts till December, and some patients remain here all the winter. In the spring this place is most frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleasure. This city is united with Wells as a bishopric. It is plentifully supplied with all kinds of provisions, at a moderate price. In 1801 it contained 4289 houses, and 32,200 inhabitants.

3. *Wells*, a city pleasantly situated on the borders of the Mendip Hills. It is well built,

with neat houses; and the streets are spacious and clean. The cathedral is a spacious Gothic structure, in the form of a cross, having a beautiful window of stained glass. The episcopal palace is said to be the handsomest in the kingdom. The chief manufactures are the knitting of hose, and bone lace. In 1801 this city contained 869 houses, and 4829 inhabitants.

4. *Frome*, a considerable town situated on a river of the same name, over which it has a handsome bridge of five arches. The situation of this place is pleasant, being built upon rising ground; but the streets are mostly narrow and irregular, with houses built of small rough stone, and covered with similar materials. The church is extremely neat, and very spacious; beside which here are places of worship for different denominations of Christians. Here are extensive manufactories of broad cloth and kerseymeres; beside an extensive trade in card-making, for the woolcombers. It contains 1653 houses, and 8748 inhabitants.

5. *Taunton*, a handsome borough-town, situated on the river Tone. It consists of four principal streets, wide, clean, and well paved, with good houses. The town has two churches, one of which is a handsome fabric; beside several meeting-houses, a well endowed grammar school, an hospital, and alms-houses. The Lent assizes for the county are held here, in a spacious court-house. Taunton has a considerable manufacture of silks. It has 1146 houses, and 5794 inhabitants.

6. *Shepton Mallet*, a manufacturing town, situated on several small hills. It is irregularly built, with narrow and confined streets. The inhabitants are chiefly engaged in extensive branches of the woollen manufacture. It contains 1105 houses, and 5104 inhabitants.

7. *Bridgewater*, a handsome borough-town, situated near the estuary of the river Parret. It carries on a considerable coasting trade with Bristol, Wales, and Cornwall; and has a number of hands employed in making bricks from a species of clay found in the river, vast quantities of which are exported, being known by the name of Flanders' bricks. The streets of this town are wide and spacious; but many of the houses are irregularly built. It contains 481 houses, and 3634 inhabitants.

DEVONSHIRE,

To the west of Somersetshire, contains 1,600,000 acres, 1,200,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The climate is in general inclined to dampness, from its situation between two coasts; but it is nevertheless salubrious and wholesome. The soil and face of the country are various: on the south and east it is fertile and pleasant;

pleasant; but toward the north-west, bleak and barren. The principal manufactures are serges, kerseymeres, broad cloth, and blond lace. The chief places are,

1. *Exeter*, the capital of the county, and one of the principal cities of the kingdom. It is situated on a rising ground, watered by the river Ex, having formerly six gates, and so many convents and monasteries, that it was called Monk's Town, till the reign of Athelstan, who changed its name to Exeter in 940. The cathedral, called St. Peter's, is a magnificent and curious fabric. It was first begun to be erected in 932, by the prince before-mentioned, and was carried on for upwards of 400 years, under various bishops, before it was completed; yet it is finished with the same uniformity as if built under the inspection of a single architect. About fifty years ago, it underwent a thorough repair. Beside the cathedral, here are eighteen other churches, with numerous chapels and Dissenting meetings. This city had several charters, confirmed by most of our kings, many of whom have honoured it with their presence. Its bridge over the Ex is of great length, and has houses on both sides towards the ends. It has four principal streets, the chief of which is called High Street, all centering in the middle of the city, which is well supplied with water. There is an old castle here, called Rougemont, supposed to have been built by the West Saxon kings. It is now much decayed, only a chapel remaining, which is kept in tolerable repair. The sessions-house is an elegant new building, in which the assizes, quarter sessions, and county-courts are held; and in 1809 a handsome county-gaol was finished, on the plan of the late Mr. Howard. In this city is a noble hospital, built in 1741 by Dr. Alured Clarke, and supported by voluntary subscriptions: the general asylum for lunatics is also a fine structure. Beside the above are several others too numerous for detail. Exeter is the seat of an extensive commerce in coarse woollen goods, of which the East India company purchase yearly to a large amount. It is the residence of many genteel families, and the frequent resort of others. Ships come up to this city by means of the sluices. In 1801 Exeter was returned as containing 3208 houses and 20,305 inhabitants.

2. **Plymouth*, an ancient borough and sea-port, at the influx of the rivers Plym and Tamar into a bay in the channel called Plymouth Sound, is one of the chief magazines in the kingdom, owing to its port, which is one of the largest and safest in England. It consists of two harbours: that of the Tamar is called Hamoaze; and that of the Plym, Catwater. The Sound is capable of containing 1000 sail of ships, and is defended by several forts, particularly a strong citadel of large extent. It is the

general rendezvous of ships outward-bound; and is very convenient for homeward-bound ships to provide themselves with pilots up the channel. That part of Plymouth called the Dock, lies at the mouth of the Tamar, and was about a mile and a half from the town of Plymouth; but to which it is now united by the suburb of Stonehouse. It was first designed as a wet and dry dock in the reign of William III. to which two others have since been added, with all the conveniences requisite for building and repairing ships of war; the docks being dug out of a mine of slate, and lined with Portland stone. Contiguous thereto are ranges of storehouses for masts, arms, rigging, sails, &c. with houses for all the various officers of the different departments to live in. Here are also commodious barracks; and of late years a great number of streets have been erected, so that the population of this part exceeds that of the borough itself. The streets of Plymouth are in general narrow and disagreeable; but here are two handsome churches, and meeting-houses for all classes of Christians. The custom-house is an extensive building; and here are a good charity school, and several hospitals, exclusive of general naval, and military hospitals, and an excellent workhouse. In 1801 this town was returned to parliament as containing 4447 houses, and 43,194 inhabitants.

Off the entrance of the sound lies the Eddystone rock, which is covered at high water, and on which the ingenious Mr. Winstanley built a light-house, that was blown down in the terrible hurricane of November 1703, and himself, with those that were in it, destroyed. It was afterwards rebuilt in 1709, and unfortunately consumed by fire in 1755: four years after it was again rebuilt by Mr. Smeaton, but again destroyed by fire in 1770. The present building was erected in 1774, by the same architect, on the summit of the largest rock; it consists of four rooms, one over the other, with a gallery and lantern at top.

3. *Crediton*, a handsome town, situated on the small river Crede, from whence it takes its name. It is about a mile in length, consisting of several good streets of neat houses, mostly new; the greater part of the town having been destroyed by a dreadful fire in 1769. It was formerly the seat of a bishop's see, which was removed to Exeter by Edward the Confessor. The church, which was formerly the cathedral, is a noble Gothic structure; and here is a good free school, founded by Queen Elizabeth. The principal manufacture of the town is that of serges, which are chiefly sent to Exeter to be finished and exported. It contains 1045 houses, and 4920 inhabitants.

4. *Barnstaple*, an ancient borough and sea-port, situated near the mouth of the river Taw, thirty-six miles from Exeter. It was formerly surrounded
with

with walls, and had the privileges of a city, but went to decay, and its harbour was nearly choaked up with sand; but of late years a spirit of improvement has manifested itself, and it is now one of the most flourishing towns in the county. The streets are spacious and well paved, with houses neatly built of stone. Over the river is a good stone bridge of sixteen arches. This town contains 619 houses, and 3478 inhabitants.

5. *Tavistock*, an ancient borough-town on the river Tamar. It is well built, and has a handsome church; the principal manufactures are serges and coarse woollens; it contains 472 houses, and 3420 inhabitants.

6. *Dartmouth*, a borough and sea-port, situated on a bay in the channel. The town is very irregularly built on the side of a rock. The chief employ of the inhabitants being that of shipping; here are no manufactories. The harbour is good, and 500 sail of ships may ride safely in the bason. It has a large quay, and a spacious street before it, where many considerable merchants live. Here are three churches, and a large meeting-house. Dartmouth castle is very ancient. This town contains 460 houses, and 3412 inhabitants.

CORNWALL,

The most western county of England, in shape resembles what its name implies, a horn. It contains 758,000 acres, above half of which is in an uncultivated state. It abounds in tin and lead; produces mundic, which affords copper as good as the Swedish; is famous for the best kind of slate tiles; and furnishes the builder with moor-stone, which, when polished, looks like Egyptian granite. The climate is mild, but much subject to damp. The soil in the valleys is rendered fertile by manure, but the hills and moors are bleak and barren. This county has the title of a duchy, and the king's eldest son is its duke. The chief places are,

1. **Falmouth*, the richest and best trading town in the county. The harbour is so commodious, that ships of the greatest burden come up to its quay. It is guarded by the castles of St. Mawes and Pendennis. There is a sufficient shelter in many creeks for the whole royal navy to ride here safe from any winds, and it has of late become one of the principal rendezvous for our channel fleet. The town is well built, and its trade very considerable. Two centuries ago it was merely a small fishing town, but of late years it has rapidly increased from the establishment here of the packet-boats for Spain, the Mediterranean, and the West Indies. It contains 578 houses, and 4849 inhabitants.

2. *Launceston*, the county-town, is small and but indifferently built, and contains nothing remarkable. It has 223 houses, and 1483 inhabitants.

3. *Redruth*, a considerable town, situated in the

midst of many productive tin-mines: it is indifferently built; and beside the church, has numerous chapels for different denominations. It contains 648 houses, and 4924 inhabitants.

4. *St. Austle*, a considerable town near the centre of the county. In the environs are several tin-mines, and quarries of porcelain clay, which is sent to Liverpool, Bristol, and Staffordshire, for the potteries. The church is an ancient massy building; and here are three meeting-houses for Methodists, Quakers, and Calvinists. It has 663 houses, and 3788 inhabitants.

5. *Penzance*, the farthest town in the west of England, is well built and populous, and has many trading ships. Veins of lead, tin, and copper, are seen here even to the utmost extent of low-water mark. It has several meeting-houses, and a Jews' synagogue; and contains 667 houses, and 3382 inhabitants.

6. *Truro*, the handsomest town in the county, is situated at the conflux of two rivers, which form a convenient harbour for small vessels. The streets are regularly built and well paved, with a good market-place, having a large town-house. The church is a spacious Gothic structure; and here are several meeting-houses. It contains 354 houses, and 2358 inhabitants.

SPLENDID EDIFICES IN VARIOUS PARTS OF ENGLAND.

Windsor Castle, which was a favourite palace of several of our early monarchs, may, without partiality, be said to claim our first attention. William the Conqueror laid the foundation of its present grandeur, by the erection of a castle, which served him for a hunting seat. His son, Henry I. repaired and fortified it; and Edward III. who was born here, took down the old castle, and displayed the magnificence of his taste by the erection of another on a larger scale, with the royal palace, Round Tower, St. George's chapel and hall, with other appurtenances. It was much defaced during the civil wars, but restored to its ancient rank and splendour by Charles II. This noble edifice is seated on a high hill, having a beautiful view of the Thames and circumjacent country. On the declivity of the hill is a fine terrace, faced with a rampart of free stone, being 1870 feet long. At the end of this walk is a gate leading into the parks, which are four miles in circumference, and surrounded by a brick wall. The castle is divided into two courts or wards, with a large round tower, or keep, between them; the whole occupying about twelve acres of land. On the western side of the upper court is the Round Tower, which is the lodging of the constable or governor. It is built in the form of an amphitheatre, to the top of which you ascend by a flight

flight of 100 stone steps, whence there is a prospect into twelve counties. Here is the magazine for arms, curiously arranged. In the centre of the lower court is St. George's chapel, which is reckoned the finest Gothic church in the universe. It owes its present form to Edward IV.; and its completion to Henry VII. Mass was publicly performed in this place in the reign of James II.; from which time it lay neglected till the reign of his present Majesty, when it underwent a thorough repair in 1790. It is adorned with a fine altarpiece, and a beautifully painted window. This fabric is particularly admired for the construction of its stone roof, which is supported in a curious manner by the ribs, from the clustered pillars. In the choir are the stalls of the twenty-six knights of the order of St. George, with a throne for the sovereign. The principal entrance into the castle is from the upper court, through a handsome vestibule, supported by pillars of the Ionic order. The grand stair-case consists of three flights of stone steps, twelve in each flight, with a beautifully painted ceiling by Sir James Thornhill. The surprise of the stranger cannot easily be expressed on viewing the numerous apartments splendidly adorned with handsome furniture, painted ceilings, fine pictures, rich gilding, and other ornaments; but the size and magnificence of St. George's hall is the most striking, which is set apart entirely to the honour of the most noble order of the Garter. The whole of this fabric has of late years undergone a complete repair, under the inspection of Mr. Wyatt.

Stowe, the beautiful seat of the Marquis of Buckingham, three miles from the town of that name. It has long been famed for its noble gardens, ornamented with Gothic temples, pavilions, obelisks, expanses of water, cascades, and bridges. The various buildings are decorated with busts, statues, and inscriptions, to the memory of the most celebrated ancient and modern characters: to give even a short description of each would fill a volume. Within a few years, these gardens have been much improved and modernized, and the mansion rebuilt on the most magnificent plan: it is 900 feet in front, and is allowed to be one of the finest in Europe. Here is one of the finest collections of paintings in England.

Blenheim, the noble mansion of the Duke of Marlborough, is situated near the town of Woodstock, in Oxfordshire. The park and manor were granted by Queen Anne to John Duke of Marlborough and his heirs, as a mark of national gratitude for the great and illustrious victories obtained by the armies under his command over the French and Bavarians, particularly near the village of Blenheim, in Germany. The entrance

into the grounds is through a grand triumphal arch, erected by the Duchess of the great Duke, as he is emphatically styled, to the memory of her husband. The mansion is entered by a superb arcade into a large hall, which is as high as the roof; and at the top of the colonnade is a reservoir of water, which supplies every part of this large building. The whole structure, though magnificent, is thought heavy by critical judges of architecture. The front is 348 feet in length, from a design of Vanburgh. The tapestry and pictures with which many of the apartments are hung, represent the battles won by the duke, with a profusion of superb looking-glasses, rich gildings, and every other ornament produced by the ingenuity of man. The library accords with the other parts of this superb mansion, being 200 feet in length, supported by elegant marble pillars, and containing upwards of 20,000 volumes. The gardens are spacious and well laid out, with fine walks, groves, and vistas, contrived to terminate with some agreeable object. In short, the palace, park, canals, bridges, &c. may be better conceived than described.

Chatsworth, the magnificent seat of the Duke of Devonshire, two miles from Bakewell, in the Peak of Derbyshire, of which it is justly esteemed one of the wonders. The position of the house is no less striking than the pile itself; standing in a spacious and deep valley, near the foot of a lofty mountain covered with wood: before it winds the Derwent, over which it has an excellent bridge. The extent of the north front is 180 feet, that of the south 182. The window-frames are gilt; and the splendor of the interior forms a striking contrast with the wild and romantic scenery of the environs. The grounds are laid out in an antique way, but are very handsomely decorated. The great cascade falls, by a flight of stone steps, down a steep hill for two or three hundred yards, and then sinks into the earth and disappears: at the head of this cascade is a temple, shaded by a venerable wood. In the front of this building, over the entrance, is a figure of Nilus reclining on an urn, from whence a stream of water descends, and also from a dragon on each side the cornice; in the front of the cornice the water oozes from the mouths of lions, and from the urn, out of two sea-nymphs, into a bason, in which it rises into the shape of two spreading trees: when the bason is filled, the cascade begins to play. Here is also a tree made of copper, the branches of which produce an artificial shower; and a *jet d'eau* throwing up a strong column of water to the height of ninety feet, which has a fine effect. Besides these, groves of tall firs, and plantations of alpine shrubs, temples, and other decorations, diversify and embellish the whole. The various apartments and chambers of the building are fitted up in the most

most tasteful and princely style. Here the unfortunate Mary Queen of Scots was confined sixteen years.

To enter into a farther description of the numerous seats of our nobility and gentry, would much exceed our limits; but it may be necessary to inform our readers, that the following are the most striking in each county:

Northumberland.—Alnwick-castle, Duke of Northumberland; Morpeth-castle, Earl of Carlisle, &c.

Cumberland.—Greystock-castle, Duke of Norfolk; Naworth, Earl of Carlisle.

Westmoreland.—Pendragon-castle; Lowther-hall, Lord Lonsdale; Appleby, Earl of Thanet.

Durham.—Raby-castle, Earl of Darlington; Bishop Auckland, Bishop of Durham; Lumley-castle, Lord Scarborough; Hilton-castle, &c. &c.

Yorkshire.—Wentworth-castle, Earl of Strafford; Wresel-castle; Castle Howard, Earl of Carlisle; Whalton-castle, Earl of Aylesbury; Hornby-castle, Earl of Holderness; Kiveton, Duke of Leeds; Aske-hall, Lord Dundas, &c. &c.

Lancashire.—Stonyhurst, Duke of Norfolk; Knowsley, Earl of Derby.

Derbyshire.—Keddleston, Lord Scarsdale; Had-don-hall, Duke of Rutland, &c.

Nottinghamshire.—Nottingham-castle, Duke of Newcastle; Welbeck, Duke of Portland; Work-sop, Duke of Norfolk.

Lincoln.—Grimsthorpe, Duke of Ancaster.

Leicester.—Belvoir-castle, Duke of Rutland.

Rutlandshire.—Oakham and Burley, Earl of Winchelsea; Ashton, Earl of Cardigan.

Northampton.—Althorp, Earl Spencer; Easton, Earl of Pomfret; Burleigh, Earl of Stamford; and Apthorp, Earl of Westmoreland.

Warwickshire.—Tamworth-castle, Earl Ferrers; Warwick-castle.

Cheshire.—Cholmondeley-hall, Earl of Cholmondeley; Eaton-hall, Earl of Grosvenor.

Staffordshire.—Beau Desert, Earl of Uxbridge; Dudley-castle, Lord Dudley, &c.

Shropshire.—Okely-park, Lord Clive; Atcham, Lord Berwick, &c.

Worcestershire.—Crome-court, Earl of Coventry, Hartlebury, the Bishop; Hagley, Lord Lyttleton. The Leasowes of Shenstone is in Shropshire.

Gloucestershire.—Bodminton, Duke of Beaufort; Berkely-castle, Earl of Berkely; King's Weston, Lord de Clifford.

Herefordshire.—Aconbury, Duke of Chandos; Brampton Bryan, Earl of Oxford; Clifford-castle, Lord Clifford.

Berks.—Park Place, Lord Malmsbury.

Oxfordshire.—Ditchley, Earl of Litchfield; Newnham, Earl of Harcourt, &c.

Bucks.—Clifdon; Bulstrode, Duke of Portland. Bedfordshire.—Wooburn-abbey, Duke of Bedford; Luton, Marquis of Bute, &c. &c.

Huntingdonshire.—Kimbolton-castle, Duke of Manchester; Bugden, Bishop of Lincoln.

Cambridgeshire.—Thorney-abbey, Duke of Beaufort; Maddingly, Sir John Cotton; Milton, Mr. Knight.

Suffolk.—Euston-hall, Duke of Grafton; Brome-hall, Lord Cornwallis.

Norfolk.—Houghton, Ld. Cholmondeley; Rayn-ham, Lord Townshend; Holkham, Mr. Coke, &c.

Middlesex.—Sion house, Duke of Northumber-land; Osterly-park, Mr. Child; Holland-house, Lord Holland, &c. &c.

Hertfordshire.—Hatfield, Earl of Salisbury; Moore Park, Lord Dundas.

Essex.—Wanstead, Earl of Tilney; Audley-end; Havering, Duke of Ancaster.

Kent.—Knowle, Duke of Dorset; Penshurst, near Tunbridge, a famous seat of the Sydneys.

Sussex.—Arundel castle, Duke of Norfolk; Goodwood, Duke of Richmond; Cowdray.

Surry.—Farnham castle, Bishop of Winchester; Oatlands, Duke of York; Streatham, Lord W. Russel; Dulwich, Lord Thurlow.

Hampshire.—The Grange, Mr. Henley; the Vine, Mr. Chute.

Wiltshire.—Wilton, Earl of Pembroke; Font-hill, Mr. Beckford; Longleate, Lord Weymouth; Wardour-castle; Stourton, Mr. Hoare's.

Devonshire.—Powderham-castle, Lord Courte-nay.

Cornwall.—Mount-Edgecumbe, Lord Edge-cumbe.

The most interesting of the public buildings are certainly the noble hospitals for seamen and soldiers, at Greenwich, and Chelsea. The former stands on the south side of the river Thames, in the county of Kent, on a terrace 860 feet long, and in its present state consists of four distinct piles of building, distinguished by the names of King Charles's, Queen Anne's, King William's, and Queen Mary's. Those next the river are King Charles's and Queen Anne's; and between them is the grand square, 270 feet wide. King William's building stands to the south-west of the great square, and Queen Mary's to the north-east: the whole containing convenient accommodation for nearly 2500 poor seamen. The pensioners of this noble institution must have been seamen who are either disabled by age, or maimed in the king's or merchants' service, if the wounds were received in defending or taking any ship, or in fighting against a pirate. Foreigners, who have served two years in our navy, become entitled to receive the benefits of this charity as well as natives. Here also

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the widows of the seamen are provided for, having the exclusive privilege of being appointed nurses in this hospital. According to the report of the Commissioners of Naval Enquiry in 1806, this hospital contained 2410 pensioners, who were provided with clothes, diet, and lodging; being allowed weekly 7 loaves of 1lb. each, 3lbs. of beef, 2lbs. of mutton, 1 pint of pease, 1½lb. of cheese, 2oz. of butter, 14 quarts of beer, and 1s. for tobacco money; the officers have more in proportion to their rank; and each receives, once in two years, a suit of blue, a hat, three pair of stockings, two pair of shoes, five neck-cloths, three shirts, and two night-caps. The average expence of each pensioner is estimated at £27 10s. 9d. There are 144 nurses, who are allowed £8 *per annum* as wages, and are also provided with clothes, diet, and lodging. The total yearly expence is £69,266 5s. The number of governors is about 100, composed of the principal nobility of the kingdom, and all the great officers of state. The funds for the support of this hospital are principally derived from a duty of sixpence *per month* paid by every mariner, either in the king's or merchants' service; the estates forfeited by the Earl of Derwentwater, given by act of parliament in 1735; with various other benefactions by the different kings, parliament, and private persons. To enter into a description of the numerous beauties of this extensive erection would much exceed our limits: but the hall in King William's building deserves notice: it is 106 feet in length, 56 in width, and 20 in height; the painting is beautiful, and was designed and executed by Sir James Thornhill; it cost £6685; on the ceiling are the portraits of the royal founders, William and Mary, surrounded by the cardinal virtues, the four seasons of the year, &c. &c.; the sides are adorned with fluted pilastres, trophies, &c. together with the landing of the Prince of Orange and George I. In this place is deposited the funeral car of the immortal Nelson: it is the model of the hull of a ship of war, about 28 feet long, with figure-head, stern-gallery, &c. surmounted on a platform, or low carriage with four wheels, trimmed round with velvet drapery, and ornamented with funeral escutcheons and devices, emblematical of the victories of Trafalgar, &c. The chapel, contained in Queen Mary's building, is a beautiful fabric, 111 feet long, and 52 broad, and sufficiently spacious to contain 1000 pensioners, with pews for the directors and the several officers belonging to the establishment. The great folding doors are of mahogany, highly ornamented; and the whole composition of this portal is not to be paralleled in this or any other country. In short, the whole of this interesting place is the admiration of strangers, and one of the greatest proofs of national gratitude and benevolence.

Chelsea Hospital is not so magnificent in its appearance as that of Greenwich; but, notwithstanding, it is one of the noblest buildings, and best foundations of its kind in the world. It was begun by Charles II. carried on by James II. and finished by William III. The first projector of this structure was Sir Stephen Fox, the ancestor of the Holland family, who bequeathed £13,000 towards its erection. It was built by Sir Christopher Wren, on the scite of an old monastery which had escheated to the crown. The north front opens into a piece of ground laid out in walks; and that to the south, into a garden extending to the Thames. On one side the entrance is the chapel, on the other the hall where the pensioners dine; the altar-piece in the chapel has a beautiful painting of the resurrection by Ricci. The wings join the chapel and hall, being 360 feet long, 80 broad, and three stories in height: in the midst of the quadrangle is the statue of Charles II. The pensioners on this noble establishment are veterans who have been twenty years in the service, or disabled. The expences of this hospital are defrayed by a poundage from the army, and the deficiency is paid by parliament. It cost £150,000 building. The out-pensioners amount to upwards of 10,000, who have a yearly allowance in proportion to their rank and length of service.

SECTION II.

Climate—Soil, Face of the Country, &c.—Agriculture—Animal and Vegetable Productions—Minerals, Metals—Rivers, Lakes, Canals—Mountains—Natural Curiosities, Antiquities, &c. &c.

Climate.—THE climate of England is extremely variable; the western coasts being subject to frequent rains: but the humidity clothes the vales and meadows with a beautiful verdure, though it is injurious to the health of the inhabitants, by causing colds and catarrhs, the frequent sources of mortal disorders, particularly of consumptions, which are fatal to many in the prime of youth. In consequence of the mutability of the climate, the seasons are uncertain. Many observers, of philosophical skill and candid judgment, have agreed, that of late years a considerable change has taken place in the temperature of the year in this country: the winters in general have been more moist and mild, and the summers more humid and cold, than will be found on an average of preceding years.

What the gardeners call *blight* seems more common in England than in any other region; whatever be the cause, it is frequently very destructive, especially to the hop-plants and fruit trees. The winter may be said to commence with the beginning of October, at which time domestic fires become necessary; but there is seldom any severe frost

frost till Christmas, and January is generally the most stern month in the year. But as our summers often produce specimens of winter, so sometimes gleams of warm sunshine illuminate the darker months. March is generally the most unsettled month in the year, being chequered with dry frosts, cold rains, and strong winds, with storms of hail and sleet.

As to air, little can be added to what has been already said concerning the climate. In many places it is much loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by westerly gales, but they are ventilated by winds and storms; so that in this respect England is, to foreigners and people of delicate constitutions, more disagreeable than insalubrious. Yet the greatest irregularity and the most unfavourable appearance of the seasons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very seldom even with a scarcity; perhaps this, in a great measure, may be owing to the vast improvements of agriculture; for when scarcity has been complained of, it generally, if not always, proceeded from the excessive exportations of grain, on account of the drawback and the profit of the returns.

Soil, Face of the Country, &c.—The soil of England differs in each county, not so much from the nature of the ground, though that must be admitted to occasion a very considerable alteration, as from the progress which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marshes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China.

The soil of England seems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber; and the plantations of trees round the houses of noblemen, gentlemen, and even peasants, are delightful and astonishing. Some have observed a decay of that oak timber which forms the great fleets that England puts to sea: but, as no public complaints of this kind have been heard, it may be supposed that great stores are still in reserve; though our shipyards have lately been much supplied from America and the Baltic.

The industry of the English is such, as to supply the absence of those favours which Nature has so lavishly bestowed upon some foreign climates, and in many respects even to exceed them. No country in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful scenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently swelling, and both of them forming the most luxuriant prospects, the corn and meadow grounds, the intermixtures of inclosures and plantation, the noble seats, respectable houses, cheerful villages, and well stocked farms, often rising in the neighbour-

hood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the most vivid colours of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by description. The most barren spots are not without verdure. But nothing can give us a higher idea of English industry, than observing that some of the pleasantest counties in the kingdom are naturally the most barren, but rendered fruitful by labour.

The chief features of a maritime state are the sea-coast. Mr. Pennant, in his *Arctic Zoology*, has given an admirable description of the eastern part of the English shores, of which the following is the substance:

From the mouth of the Tweed to Bamborough extends a sandy shore; and the most remarkable object is Lindesfarn, or Holy Island, divided from Northumberland by a level, which is dry at low water, but out of which the flowing tide oozes suddenly, to the terror and peril of the unwary traveller. From Bamborough Castle to Flamborough Head, are mostly low cliffs, of lime-stone and other materials, and at Sunderland of a peculiar stone used in building, and which seems the work of marine insects. Scarborough stands on a vast rock, projecting into the waves; but Flamborough Head is a far more magnificent object, being formed of lime-stone of a snowy whiteness, and stupendous height, visible far off at sea. Grand caverns open on the north side, "giving wide and solemn admission, through most exalted arches, into the body of the mountain; which, together with the gradual decline of light, the deep silence of the place, unless interrupted by the striking of the oar, the collision of a swelling wave against the sides, or the loud flutter of the pigeons affrighted from their nests in the distant roof, afford pleasures of scenery, which such formations alone can yield. These also are wonderfully diversified. In some parts the caverns penetrate far, and end in darkness; in others are pervious, and give a romantic passage by another opening equally superb. Many of the rocks are insulated, of a pyramidal form, and soar to a great height. The bases of most are solid, but in some pierced through and arched. All are covered with the dung of the innumerable flocks of migratory birds, which resort here annually to breed, and fill every little projection, every hole, which will give them leave to rest."

From hence to the Humber are commonly clay-cliffs; and near Spurn-head amber is sometimes found. The extensive coast of Lincolnshire is flat, and, according to Mr. Pennant, has been gained from the sea; though, in some parts, the sea has in its turn invaded the land, and the remains of a forest are visible under the waves. The county of Lincoln, and part of six others, are the low countries of Britain; and the coast is distinguished by churches, not by hills. The shores of Norfolk and Suffolk

Suffolk present sometimes loamy or clayey precipices, sometimes hillocks of sand, and sometimes low and flat spaces. Hunstanton Cliff rises to the height of about 80 feet, composed of chalk and friable stone, resting on a base of what is called iron-coloured pudding-stone, projecting into the sea. The coast of Essex is generally low; but to the south of the Thames arise continued cliffs of chalk, with layers of flint, resembling masonry. The North Foreland is a lofty chalky promontory; and the cliffs of Dover are known to every reader of Shakspeare.

Agriculture, &c.—This science, as it may now fairly be termed, has of late years made rapid improvement. The nobility and gentry, mostly residing upon their estates in summer, often retain considerable farms in their own hands, and practice and encourage every agricultural improvement: indeed, this rage for farming has been of serious injury to individuals, and of little public utility. The writings of Mr. Young, and the Board of Agriculture, have contributed to diffuse an extensive knowledge of this interesting branch. The intermixture of the green crops with those of grain, the irrigation of meadows, the regular substitution of crops appropriated to the state of the land, and the art of draining conducted on scientific principles, may be mentioned among the recent advances in knowledge, as may also the improvement in the breed of sheep and cattle. Horticulture, or the art of gardening, is also pursued in England with great assiduity and success. Of ornamental gardens, laid out with a just attention to the beauties of nature, and free from the uncouth affectations of art, England is justly regarded as the parent country. In the course of little more than half a century, this taste has not only been diffused in Great Britain, but has been imitated in several parts of the continent, even as far as the rude climate of Russia.

England contains 50,210 square statute miles, equal to 32,150,000 square statute acres; of which it appears 10,500,000, or about one-third part, is in cultivation for tillage, and about 15,000,000 in pasturage; 2,000,000 more are assigned to woods, plantations, and hedge-rows; and 1,500,000 are unavoidably consumed by roads, rivers, canals, &c. Of the remainder lying waste it is supposed nearly three millions are fit for cultivation. The above quantity of $10\frac{1}{2}$ millions of acres in tillage has been thus divided: three millions may be reckoned to remain as fallow, or in a state of turnips, &c.; about three millions and a half more occupied by barley and oats; and two millions with peas, beans, buck wheat, vetches, &c. leaving the remaining two millions for the production of wheat, the annual produce of which is estimated at 5,250,000 quarters. It appears that there are upon the average four acres of land to each person

in England; and it is well known, that three, if well cultivated, are sufficient to maintain one individual.

Quadrupeds.—That noble and useful animal, the horse, is found in England of many mingled breeds. Our race-horses descend from Arabian stallions, and the genealogy in a degree extends to our hunters. The great strength and size of the English draught-horses are derived from those of Germany and Flanders; and other breeds have been so intermingled, that native horses may be found adapted to every purpose of pomp, pleasure, or utility; while the irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry render them superior to all others in war. The exportation of horses has of late become a considerable article of commerce; and the breed of asses and mules begins likewise to be improved and in England.

The indigenous breed of horned cattle is now known only to exist in Staffordshire and Northumberland. The breeds of our cattle are almost as various as those of our horses: those of Wales and Cornwall are small, while the Lincolnshire kind derive their great size from those of Holstein. In the north of England we find kyles, so called from the district of Kyle in Scotland; in the south we find the elegant breed of Guernsey, generally of a light brown colour, and small size, but remarkable for the richness of their milk.

The number and value of sheep in England may be judged from the ancient staple commodity of wool. Of this most useful animal several breeds appear, generally denominated from their particular counties or districts. Those of Herefordshire, Devonshire, and Coteswold Downs, are remarkable for fine fleeces; while the Lincolnshire and Warwickshire kind are noted for the quantity. The Teesdale breed of the county of Durham, though lately neglected, are still in repute for the excellence of their wool. The mutton of Wales is esteemed; while the wool is coarse, yet employed in many useful manufactures. The Norfolk breed is remarkable for black faces and legs; those of Leicestershire are very large, and without horns. There is a kind of sheep fed upon the downs, such as those of Banstead, Bagshot Heath, and Lansdowns, where they have what the farmers call the short bite, which is little inferior in flavour and sweetness to venison. The most laudable exertions have lately been made by the Board of Agriculture, and by individuals, for the improvement of the English fleece. The goat, an inhabitant of the rocks, has even in Wales begun to yield to the more useful sheep; that country being, like Scotland, more adapted to the woollen manufacture. The breeds of swine are various and useful.

Englishmen are partial to that social animal, the dog, of which we have several breeds. In the reign

reign of Queen Elizabeth, naturalists enumerated sixteen denominations of English dogs. Some seem to be now extinct; and the blood-hound only occurs in Staffordshire. The terrier, as the name implies, was used to force burrowing animals from their holes; the harrier, a-kin to the fox-hound, for hunting the hare. The grey-hound was so called, as ancient naturalists inform us, because he was the first in degree among dogs. The spaniels, from Spain, as the name imports, were trained as starters, setters, and pointers, but the latter description is modern; the water-spaniel was used to recover the slaughtered game; the spaniel-gentle, or comforter, is our lap-dog. The shepherd's dog is Buffon's *father of the whole canine progeny*, which always displayed its docile qualities. The mastiff, or *amaze-thief*, was employed in defending the house; to this species Mr. Pennant ascribes the bull-dog, an animal of surprising spirit and fierceness. The curs and mongrels are numerous, but the turnspit is now exploded. The Newfoundland dog, of more useful and generous qualities, has in some degree supplanted the mastiff; and the spotted Dalmatian forms an additional attendant on an equipage. The English dogs, particularly those of the fiercer kind, either from change of soil, or feeding, degenerate in foreign climes. The wolf has been long extinct, but the fox abounds, likewise a rat falsely called the Norway rat, and various kinds of mice. The mole, urchin, and bat, seem to be more rare; the seal is chiefly found on the coasts of Wales. In the parks of the great, fallow deer abound, as do the red deer; the latter are known by the term stag, while the former are styled buck, doe, and fawn; the red kind are more vicious than the other, and become more uncommon.

Birds.—Fowls are much the same in England as in other countries; turkeys, peacocks, common poultry, such as cocks, pullets, and capons, geese, swans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild sort are bustards, wild geese, wild ducks, teal, widgeon, plover, pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, grouse, quail, land-rail, snipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws, and jays, blackbirds, thrushes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of small birds, particularly the golden-crested wren: canary birds also breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its flesh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Fish.—There are not many countries better supplied than England with river and sea-fish. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of salmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, smelts, carp, tench, barbel, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fish, besides a delicate lake-fish

called char, which is found in some fresh-water lakes of Wales and Cumberland. The sea-fish are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchard, skate, soles. The john-dory, found towards the western coast, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fish are found on the same coast. Our shell-fish are chiefly oysters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobsters, crabs, shrimps, and scallops, one of the most delicious of shell-fishes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muscles, with many other small shell-fish, abound in the English Sea. The whales chiefly visit the northern coast; but great numbers of porpoises and seals appear in the Channel.

Reptiles, Insects, &c.—With regard to reptiles, such as adders, vipers, snakes, and worms; and insects, such as ants, gnats, wasps, and flies, England nearly resembles the rest of Europe.

Vegetable Productions.—England produces great quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain. Honey and saffron are natives of England. It is almost needless to mention in what plenty the most excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here; and what quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in some counties. The cyder of Devon and Herefordshire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention those improvements, did we not observe the natives of England have made the different fruits of the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, but often by hot-beds and other means of forcing nature. The English pine-apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The same may be said of other natives of the East and West Indies, Persia, and Turkey. The English grapes are pleasing to the taste; but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine; and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raised here. The kitchen gardens abound with all sorts of greens, roots, and salads, in perfection; such as artichokes, asparagus, cauliflower, cabbages, coleworts, broccoli, peas, beans, kidney-beans, spinach, beets, lettuce, celery, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, mushrooms, leeks, onions, and shallots.

In Bucks and Bedfordshire, woad for dying is cultivated, as hemp and flax are in other countries: in nothing, however, have the English been more successful than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, saintfoin, lucern, and other meliorating grasses for the soil. A botanist only can recount the various kinds of useful and salutary herbs, shrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England.

England. The soil of Kent, Essex, Surrey, and Hampshire, is most favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which are now become a very considerable article of trade.

Metals and Minerals.—Among the minerals, the tin-mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter especially, some ages before the Christian æra; and since the English have found a method of manufacturing their tin into plates and white iron, they are of immense benefit to the nation. An ore called mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded, till above 80 years ago, when Sir Gilbert Clark discovered the art of manufacturing it; and it is said now to bring in £150,000 a year, and to equal in goodness the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris, for making brass. Those tin works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws; and the miners have privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Cornish miners is said to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewise been discovered in Cornwall, and the English lead is impregnated with silver. The English coined silver is particularly known by roses, and that of Wales by the prince's cap of feathers. Devonshire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the best kind, which resembles Egyptian granite, is excessively hard to work. Quarries of free-stone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheshire yield alum and salt-pits. The English fuller's earth is of such consequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties. Pit and sea-coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland and the bishopric of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is very considerable. Every year upwards of 1500 vessels are employed along the eastern coast of England to carry them to and from London.

Rivers.—The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, fertility, and opulence. The most noted is the Thames, which rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, a little south-west of Cirencester; after receiving many tributary streams, it passes by Oxford, Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windsor, to Kingston, where formerly it met the tide, which, since the building of Westminster and Blackfriars bridges, is said to flow no higher than Richmond; it then proceeds to London, and, after dividing the counties of Kent and Essex, widens in its progress, till it falls into the sea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ships to London-bridge, a distance

of upwards of 70 miles; but the whole length of its navigation, from its mouth to Lechlade in Gloucestershire, is upwards of 270. It was formerly a reproach to England, among foreigners, that so capital a river should have so few bridges; those of London and Kingston being the only two it had, from the Nore to the last-mentioned place, for many ages. This inconvenience was in some measure owing to the dearth of materials for building stone bridges, but perhaps more to the fondness which the English, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increase of riches, commerce, and inland trade is now multiplying bridges; and the world cannot parallel, for commodiousness, architecture, and workmanship, those erected at Westminster and Blackfriars, of which we have already given a description. Battersea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton, and Hampton-court, have now bridges.

The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, rises at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; it becomes navigable at Welsh-Pool, whence it runs east to Shrewsbury; then turning south, visits Bridgenorth, Worcester, and Tewkesbury, where it receives the Upper Avon: after having passed Gloucester, it takes a south-west direction, being near its mouth increased by the Wye and Ustre; after which it discharges itself into the Bristol channel. The whole length of its navigation from the mouth of the Avon near Bristol, to Pool Quay in Montgomeryshire, is 155 miles; having neither lock nor wear within that distance; which is somewhat remarkable, as this is allowed to be the most rapid river in the kingdom.

The Trent rises in the moorlands of Staffordshire, and, running south-east by Newcastle-under-Line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-east on the confines of Derbyshire, visits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnshire, at the northern extremity of which it is joined by the Ouse; from whence, to the sea, these noble rivers are known by the name of the Humber. The Trent is navigable from its mouth to Burton in Staffordshire, a distance, including its windings, of 150 miles; imparting, during its whole course, fertility to a wide tract of country, and affording a ready conveyance to the coast for the produce of the midland counties. This river is the grand connecting medium of the principal canal navigation of the kingdom.

The Ouse is a large river composed of the tributary streams of the Swale and the Ure: the former rises in the pleasant vale, called Swaledale, at the north-eastern corner of the county of York, from whence it flows by the town of Richmond to Aldborough; the Ure rises in Wensley-dale, and, after flowing a considerable distance, joins the

Swale at Aldborough, where they both assume the name of the Ouse; it then flows past York, Selby, and Howden, to where it joins the Trent; then, under the name of the Humber, these noble rivers fall into the German Ocean at Spurn Head, twenty miles below the town of Hull. This river, from its source to its mouth, receives upwards of twenty considerable streams, flowing from all the interior parts of the country.

The Medway rises near Tunbridge, and falls into the Thames at Sheerness; being navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham.

Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from west to east, through Northumberland, and falls into the German sea at Tynemouth, below Newcastle. The Tees runs from west to east, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls into the German sea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from west to east, on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from south to north, through Westmoreland and Cumberland, and, passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Derwent runs from east to west, through Cumberland, and, passing by Cockermouth, falls into the Irish Sea a little below. The Ribble runs from east to west, through Lancashire, and, passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish sea. The Mersey runs from the south-east to the north-west, through Cheshire, and then dividing Cheshire from Lancashire, passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish sea a little below that town. The Dee rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish Channel below Chester. The Lower Avon runs west, through Wiltshire to Bath, and then dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, runs to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Tamar runs from north to south, and falls into the sea near Plymouth, where it forms the noble harbour of Hamoaze.

Lakes.—There are few lakes in England; though it is plain from history and antiquity, and indeed, in some places, from the face of the country, that meres and fens, have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining are Soham mere, Wittlesea mere, and Ramsey mere, in the Isle of Ely, in Cambridgeshire: all these meres, in a rainy season, are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. The lake of Winandermere, in Westmoreland, is the largest in the kingdom, being about 15 miles long, and from 1 to 2 broad; having very winding shores; it abounds with excellent fish, and is particularly noted for its delicate char; it varies in depth from 90 to 220 feet, having several little islands in the middle, on one of which a curious edifice has recently been erected. The

lake of Keswick is a beautiful expanse of water, of three miles in length, and nearly two where broadest. Besides these there are some small lakes in Lancashire, which go by the name of the Derwent waters.

Canals.—The introduction of canals is one of the most advantageous improvements of modern times. In a History of Inland Navigation, which first appeared in 1795, the author intimates that what is called the Caerdyke, extending from the river Nyne, a little below Peterborough, into the river Witham, three miles below Lincoln, was intended for inland navigation. This canal is about forty miles in length, and must have been originally very deep, though now almost filled up. It is supposed to have been a work of the Romans. The earliest inland navigation that can be authenticated is the Sankey canal, leading from the coal-pits at St. Helens in Lancashire, to the river Mersey, and constructed in order to convey coals to Liverpool. The length of the canal is 12 miles, with a fall of 90 feet. The act of parliament passed in 1755: the original intention was only to render the rivulet called Sankey Brook navigable, but it was found more advantageous to form a canal along its course.

To the late Duke of Bridgewater this country is principally indebted for the great advantages it derives from inland navigation: his spirit and opulence were happily seconded by the efforts of a man of extraordinary mechanical talents, named Brindley. The first act was obtained for these great designs in 1758. The original canal extends from Worsley Mill, about seven computed miles from Manchester, and reaches that town by a course of nine miles, a circuit of two miles being necessary for the sake of the level. In this short space almost every difficulty occurred that can arise in schemes of that nature; but all obstacles were removed by the talents of Brindley. There are subterraneous passages for the canal in the mountain of near a mile in length, sometimes cut through the solid rock, and occasionally arched over with brick, with air-funnels to the top of the hill, some of them thirty-seven yards perpendicular. This beautiful canal is thrown over the river Irwell, by an arch of thirty-nine feet in height, under which barges pass without lowering their masts. The various machines and inventions of Brindley, for its construction and preservation, deservedly excite astonishment. The Duke of Bridgewater soon afterwards extended a canal of 29 miles in length, from Longford Bridge in Lancashire, to Hempstones in Cheshire.

The most important canals which have been executed are the following:

The Lancaster canal extends from Kendal in Westmoreland, by Lancaster, Garstang, Preston, and Wigan, to Houghton in Lancashire, a length of 76 miles.

The

The canal from Leeds to Liverpool, directed in a northerly course by Skipton, winds through an extent of 130 miles; and from this canal a branch also extends to Manchester.

From Halifax to Manchester is another considerable canal, commonly called that of Rochdale; it is in length $31\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

Another canal extends from Manchester towards Wakefield; and another, called the Peak Forest canal, stretches from the former south-east about 15 miles.

The Chesterfield canal extends from Chesterfield in the county of Derby, to the Trent at Stockwith, a course of $44\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

In Lincolnshire one canal extends from Lincoln to the Trent, and another from Horncastle to Sleaford. Grantham canal reaches from that town to the river Trent, a course of 30 miles.

It was the principal design of Brindley to join, by inland navigation, the four great ports of the kingdom; Bristol, London, Liverpool, and Hull. Liverpool is accordingly connected with Hull by a canal from that long navigable river the Trent, and proceeding north to the Mersey. The canal which joins these two rivers is styled the Grand Trunk, and was begun and completed under the direction of that great engineer, in the course of eleven years. The length is 99 miles. This project was attended with great difficulties, particularly in passing the river Dove in Derbyshire, where there is an aqueduct of 23 arches: the tunnel through the hill of Harecastle, in Staffordshire, is in length 2880 yards, more than 70 yards below the surface of the ground, and was executed with great labour and expence. But the utility corresponds with the grandeur of the design; salt from Cheshire, coals and pottery from Staffordshire, and manufactures from various places, being transported on this canal. From the Grand Trunk five or six branches extend in various directions; among which is that to the river Severn near Bewdley, which connects the port of Bristol with that of Liverpool and Hull; the length is 46 miles.

From the city of Chester one canal extends to the Mersey, and another to Nantwich; another proceeds south to Shrewsbury, uniting the Mersey and the Severn, with north-west and south-east branches of considerable length.

From Coventry, in the centre of the kingdom, canals extend to the Grand Trunk, to Ashby-de-la-Zouch, and to the Braunston, or Grand Junction canal.

What is called the Staffordshire canal extends from the Grand Trunk to the river Severn, and is met by the Kingston canal, which reaches to Kingston in Herefordshire, so as almost to join the rivers Trent and Wye. Several inland navigations pass by Birmingham. The Union canal completes a

course of near 44 miles, from Leicester to Northampton, whence the river Nen is navigable to the sea. Another canal extends from Gloucester to Hereford; and the Severn is not only joined with the Trent and Humber by various courses of navigation, but is united with the Thames by a canal extending by Stroud to Lechlade, a course of near 40 miles. Other canals branch out from the Thames, in various directions; that of Oxford extends to the Grand Trunk, or rather joins the Coventry canal, after a course of 92 miles.

The Braunston, or Grand Junction canal reaches from Brentford on the Thames, and joins the Oxford canal at Braunston in Northamptonshire, after a course of 90 miles. It is styled the Grand Junction canal, because it may be said to unite the numerous courses that pervade the central counties with the capital of the kingdom. Within these few years it has been brought to Paddington; and thus the metropolis derives the advantage of its extensive communications.

On the south of the Thames a canal proceeds from Reading to Bath; and another from Weybridge to Basingstoke; and a third from Weybridge to Godalming. A small canal or two have been executed in Devonshire. The Andover canal, in Hampshire, extends from Andover to Southampton water. Sussex presents two canals; that of Arundel, and that of Lewes.

Within a very few years several other canals have been begun, and are partially completed, in and about the metropolis; among others, the Croydon canal, which it is intended to extend to Portsmouth, &c. &c.

Hence these wonderful exertions, within the space of little more than fifty years, have conduced to the most important national advantages, in tending so essentially to the promotion of agriculture, commerce, the encouragement of industry, and the best interests of the country.

Forests.—The first Norman kings of England, partly from political purposes, and partly from the wantonness of power, converted immense tracts of grounds into forests for hunting: these were governed by laws peculiar to themselves, so that it was necessary, about the time of passing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the forest laws; and Justices in Eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those vast tracts were disforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are those of Windsor, New Forest in Hampshire, the Forest of Dean, and Sherwood Forest. These forests produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash, and beech, besides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large forests of chesnut trees, which exceeded

ceeded all other kinds of timber for the purposes of building, as appears from many great houses still extant, in which the chesnut beams and roofs remain still fresh and undecayed, though some of them are above 600 years old.

Besides the principal forests above mentioned, other districts still retain the same names; as Dartmoor Forest in Devonshire, Enfield Chase in Middlesex, Epping Forest in Essex, Peak Forest in Derbyshire, and several others of less note in the different counties.

Mountains.—Though England is full of delightful rising grounds, and the most enchanting slopes, yet it contains few mountains. The most noted are, Skiddaw in Cumberland, which is 3270 feet above the level of the sea, and commands a delightful prospect, even as far as Scotland; Ingleborough Hill, near Settle, in Yorkshire, which is full 20 miles in circumference at its base, and rises 2380 feet above the level of the Irish Channel; and the Peak in Derbyshire. To these may be added the Endle in Lancashire, the Wolds in Yorkshire, the Cheviot Hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worcestershire, Cotswold in Gloucestershire, and the Wrekin in Shropshire.

Natural Curiosities.—The natural curiosities of England are various. The Bath waters are universally celebrated both for drinking and bathing. Spas of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich in Surrey; and at Acton and Islington in Middlesex. There are also many remarkable springs, of which some are impregnated either with salt, as that of Droitwich in Worcestershire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicestershire; and a dropping well at Knaresborough in the west riding of Yorkshire. Some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, and Laywell near Torbay, whose waters rise and fall several times in an hour. There is a remarkable fountain near Richard's castle in Herefordshire, commonly called Bone-well, which is generally full of small bones, like those of frogs or fish, though often cleared out. At Anciliff, near Wigan in Lancashire, was the famous burning well: the water was cold, neither had it any smell; yet so strong a vapour of sulphur issued out with the steam, that, upon applying a light to it, the top of the water was covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasted several hours, and emitted so strong a heat that meat might have been boiled over it. The fluid itself would not burn when taken out of the well. This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which has been since

dug from under the well; since which time the warmth has ceased.

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is said to be continually mouldering away, but never diminishes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the same place, is a chasm in the side of a mountain, near seven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock; but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the last 80 were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's Hole, near Buxton, for several paces is very low, but soon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inside of a Gothic cathedral. The height is very great, yet much short of what some have asserted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimension; a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds very much, by its sounding stream, re-echoed on all sides, to the astonishment of all who visit this vast cavern. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on all the sides, have an amusing effect; for they not only reflect numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in several places into various forms, which, with the help of imagination, may pass for lions, fonts, &c. The entrance into that stupendous cavern at Castleton, which is vulgarly named the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and upwards of 30 feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who subsist by guiding strangers into the cavern, which is crossed by four streams of water, and then is thought impassable. The vault in several places makes a beautiful appearance, being chequered with various-coloured stones.

Yorde's Cave, in the western mountains of Yorkshire, near the vale of Kingsdale, resembles that of the Peak, but is still more vast and magnificent; it is watered by a small brook, and adorned with beautiful petrefactions of the most grotesque forms: from the dome falls a clear cascade, into a bason of transparent water. Near the base of the mountain in which this cave is situated, is an unfathomable chasm, called Jingling Cave, because whatever is thrown into it makes a jingling sound, then the noise stops, and then it is heard again, rolling and rumbling for a considerable length of time. The sides of the mountains in this part of the country are full of caverns, chasms, and deep openings, of all sizes and shapes: many of them are called Pots, from being open at the top; the largest, called Hurtle Pot, is a most horrible, gloomy, deep, round hole, above 30 yards across at the top. Weathercoat Cave, in this vicinity, is supposed to be the most surprising curiosity of the kind in Great Britain: it is a stupendous subterranean

terranean cataract, in a huge cave, the top of which is even with the adjoining land. The cave is of a lozenge form, divided into two parts by a rugged arch, of lime-stone rock. In the smallest cavern is a petrifying well, with passages and windings that would bewilder the most cautious. The descent to the larger cave, under the arch, is difficult; but the amazing cascade within is viewed with astonishment. Out of the rock issues a stream equal to that of the New River at London; it rushes forward with a bending that shews it has a deep descent before it appears outwardly, and then tumbles perpendicularly 25 yards to the bottom, with a noise that startles the boldest adventurer. The spray fills the cave; and if the sun shine brightly upon it, a beautiful small vivid rainbow is formed, which has a grand effect. Beyond this cave are several galleries and openings, to which very few have the temerity to descend.

About five miles from Lancaster is a remarkable cave called Dunald Mill-hole. In the middle of a large common, a brook, nearly as big as the New River, after turning a corn-mill just at the entrance of the cave, runs into its mouth by several beautiful cascades, continuing its course two miles under a large mountain, and at last makes its appearance again near Carnford, a village in the road to Kendal. The entrance of this subterraneous channel has something pleasingly terrible: from the mill at the top you descend about ten yards perpendicular, by means of chinks in the rock and clumps of trees; the passage is then almost parallel to the horizon leading to the right, a little winding, till you have some hundreds of yards thickness of rocks and minerals above your head.

About four miles west from Middleton, in Teesdale, is that sublime cataract called the High Force, across the river Tees, which separates the counties of York and Durham. The water is darted over a huge rock of black marble, upwards of 80 feet perpendicular, and precipitated into several caverns, excavated out of the solid rock by the force and boiling of the water. When the river is swoln with rain, it has a grand effect, falling in the form of a horse-shoe, composing a circumference of full 30 yards.

Several spots in England are said to have a petrifying quality. Near Whitby in Yorkshire are found certain stones resembling the folds and wreaths of a serpent; also other stones of several sizes, and so exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon-ball, which, being broken, commonly contain the form and likeness of serpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In some parts of Gloucestershire stones are found resembling cockles, oysters, and other testaceous marine animals, and which, no doubt, were once the actual animals that they represent.

Antiquities.—"The ancient monuments of a country (observes Pinkerton) are intimately connected with the chief epochs of its history, and particularly with the revolutions it has undergone by foreign conquest, or new population. The English antiquities fall of course into six divisions. 1. Those belonging to the primitive Celtic inhabitants. 2. Those of the Belgic colonies. 3. Those of the Romans. 4. Those of the Saxons. 5. Relics of the Danes. 6. Norman monuments. Few of those remains, it must be confessed, throw much light upon history; but many of them being interesting and curious in themselves, they deserve the attention of the traveller and geographer.

"A radical mistake in the study of English antiquities has arisen from the confusion of the Celtic and Belgic languages and monuments. The Druids have deservedly attracted much curiosity and research; but it would be erroneous to impute to them, as is usual, the whole of our earliest remains. Cæsar speaks of Druidism as a recent institution; and such being the case, it is probable that it originated from the Phœnician factories, established in wooden fortresses on the coast, the usual practice of commercial nations, when trading with savage or barbarous races. The tenets correspond with what little exists of Phœnician mythology; and the missionaries of that refined people might be not a little zealous in their diffusion. However this be, the ancient authors, from whom we derive our sole authentic information concerning the Druids, minutely describe their religious rites, but are totally silent concerning any monuments of stone being used among them. On the contrary, they mention gloomy groves, and spreading oaks, as the only scenes of the Druidic ceremonies. Yet our antiquaries will even infer, that Stonehenge is a Druidic monument, though it be situated in an extensive plain, where not a vestige of wood appears, and where the very soil is reputed adverse to its vegetation."

Of the monument here only alluded to by Pinkerton, we shall give some description. This celebrated relic, called Stonehenge, is about six miles from Salisbury: it consists of two circles and two ovals respectively concentric; the outer circle being 108 feet in diameter. The intention of the founders seems to have been this: the whole circumference was to consist of 100 upright stones, each stone four cubits broad, and each interval two cubits. Of the outer circle, which in its perfection consisted of 60 stones, and 30 imposts, there are 17 uprights left standing, 11 of which are contiguous to the grand entrance, and have 5 imposts upon them. The lesser circle, which never had any imposts, is somewhat more than eight feet from the inside of the outward one, and consisted of 40 lesser stones, forming, with the outward circle

circle, a kind of circular portico. There are only 19 of the 40 left, but 11 of them are standing *in situ*, five in one place contiguous, three in another and two in another. The walk between these two circles, which is 300 feet in circumference, is equally grand and delightful. The adytum, or cell into which none but the upper orders of Druids entered, is composed of certain compages of stones, or tritithons, consisting of two upright stones, and an impost at top: there are evidently 12 of these remaining, three of which are entire, nine are ruined in some measure, but the stones remain *in situ*. The stones that compose it are really stupendous; their height, breadth, and thickness are enormous; and to see so many of them placed together, in a nice and regular figure, with exactness; to consider, as it were, not a pillar of one stone, but a whole wall, a side and end of a temple, of one stone; to view them curiously, creates such an emotion in the mind, as cannot easily be described by words.

At a small distance from this amazing work of antiquity, are a great number of elevations, something resembling the form of a bell, called burrows, or barrows: these are sepulchral tumuli, wherein the ancient Britons deposited the ashes of their dead, and which were raised in memory of soldiers slain in or near the place.

On Marlborough Downs there is an erection of huge stones, called Abury, resembling Stonehenge. These stupendous remains are also supposed to be the ruins of an ancient Druidic temple; so large, that a whole village is now contained within the circumference of them.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors: their vestiges are numerous. One is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and passing through Kent to London; from thence to St. Alban's, Dunstable, Stratford, Towcester, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill, near Shrewsbury; then by Stratton, and so through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris, called Hermen-street, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaster, strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-street. There would, however, be no end of describing the vestiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which serve as foundations to our present highways. The great Earl of Arundel, the celebrated English antiquary, had formed a noble plan for describing those which pass through Sussex

and Surrey towards London; but the civil war breaking out, put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England; one particularly, very little detached, near Dorchester in Dorsetshire, where is also a Roman amphitheatre. Their situations are generally so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so complete, that there is some reason to believe that they were the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and tessellated pavements that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magistrates lived in town or villas. Roman walls have likewise been found in England; and probably, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and castles are blended with those of a later date. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England. But the most amazing monument of the Roman power in Britain, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Pict's wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tynemouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about 80 miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone forts and turrets at proper distances, so that each might have a speedy communication with the other: and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the north, and a military highway to the south.

The following have been esteemed Druid monuments by Borlase: 1. Single stones erect; 2. Rock idols and pierced stones; 3. Rocking stones, used as ordeals; 4. Sepulchres of two, three, or more stones; 5. Circular temples, or rather circles of erect stones; 6. Barrows or tumuli; 7. Cromlechs, or heaps of stones; 8. Rock basins, imagined to have been used in Druidic expiations; 9. Caves, used as places of retreat in time of war. But as most of those relics may also be found in Germany and Scandinavia, it becomes hazardous to pronounce whether they be Gothic or Celtic; and, as we learn from ancient authors that the Germans had no Druids, to bestow the name of Druidic upon such monuments is mere conjecture. It is, however, most probable, that the earliest inhabitants, as is ever the practice in the infancy of society, made use of wood, not stone, in their religious as well as in their domestic erections. "If," says Pinkerton, commenting upon this point, "we survey the various savage regions of the globe, we shall seldom or never perceive the use of stone; and it is certainly just to infer, that the savages of the West were not more skilful than those of the East; nor those of the old continents and islands, than

than those of the new. However this be, a learned ignorance upon such topics is preferable to an assumed and imaginary knowledge."

But as many of these monuments are found in Germany, Scandinavia, and Iceland, and as the Icelandic writers in particular, often indicate their origin and use, which are unknown in the Celtic records, there is every reason to attribute them to a more advanced stage of society, when the Belgic colonies introduced agriculture, and a little farther progress in the rude arts of barbarism. "A few remarks (adds this antiquary) may be offered on Stonehenge, that stupendous monument of barbaric industry. Inigo Jones, in attempting to prove that it is Roman, only evinces that no talents can avail when science is wanting, and that antiquities require a severe and peculiar train of study. Dr. Stukely, a visionary writer, assigns Stonehenge to the Druids; while Dr. Charlton, perceiving that such monuments are found in Denmark, ascribed it to the Danes. If the latter had considered that the Belgæ were a Gothic nation of similar language and institutions, he might with more justice have extended its antiquity. From the Icelandic writers we learn, that such circles were called *Domb-ringr*, that is literally *Doom-ring*, or circle of judgment, being the solemn places where courts were held, of all kinds and dignities, from the national council down to the baronial court, or that of a common proprietor of land, for adjusting disputes between his *villani* and slaves. The magnificence of Stonehenge loudly pronounces that it was the supreme court of the nation, equivalent to the *Champs de Mars et de Mai* of the Franks, where the king and chiefs assembled in the circle, and the men capable of arms in the open plain; nor is it improbable that the chiefs ascended the transverse stones, and declared their resolves to the surrounding crowd, who, in the description of Tacitus, dissented by loud murmurs, or applauded by clashing their shields. This idea receives confirmation from the circumstance that the Belgæ, peculiarly so called, as being the chief and ruling colony of that people, were seated in the surrounding province, and *Sorbiodunum*, now Old Sarum, was their capital city."

Similar circles of stone, but far inferior in size, are found in many parts of Great Britain and Ireland; and several, undoubtedly, as late as the Danish inroads and usurpations, the practice being continued by that people at least till their conversion to Christianity, in the tenth and eleventh centuries. Some of the smallest, as we learn from the northern antiquaries, were merely places of family sepulture. At a later period the circles of judgment, which had been polluted with human sacrifices, and other Pagan rites, were abandoned; and the great courts were held on what were called

Moot hills, or hills of meeting, many of which still exist in the British dominions, and in the Netherlands. They commonly consist of a central eminence, on which sat the judge and his assistants; beneath was an elevated platform for the parties, their friends, and *compurgators*, who sometimes amounted to a hundred or more; and this platform was surrounded with a trench, to secure it from the access of the mere spectators. Of the other monuments of this period, a more brief consideration must suffice. When a monarch, or distinguished general, was buried, a barrow or hillock was erected, to preserve his name and memory to future ages: the size depending on the reputation of the person, which attracted a smaller or larger number of operators. Such monuments are very ancient, and even to this day denote the sepulchres of some of the heroes of the Trojan war. In later times a large single stone erected was esteemed a sufficient memorial; such single stones also sometimes appear as monuments of remarkable battles, or merely as boundaries. The caves are familiar to most nations in an early state of society.

The Belgic relics are followed by those of the Romans, which are mostly objects of mere curiosity, and rarely throw the smallest light upon the page of history. Amphitheatres are said to be still visible at Silchester, in Hampshire, and some other places. The Roman castle at Richborough, the ancient *Rutupiæ*, in Kent, presents considerable remains of a massy wall cemented with surprising firmness. The Roman ruins in this country are commonly composed of stone or flint, with strata of flat bricks at considerable intervals. The Mosaic pavements, hypocausts, &c. are generally the remains of the villas of opulent Romans, scattered over the country. The greatest number of Roman inscriptions, altars, &c. has been found in the north, along the great frontier wall, which extended from the Western Sea to the estuary of the Tyne. This vast wall is justly esteemed the most important remain of the Roman power in England, as that of Antoninus is in Scotland. The extent was about 70 miles; and its construction, forts, &c. have been illustrated by the labour of several antiquaries.

The more minute relics of the Romans in England are abundant: they consist of coins, gems, weapons, ornaments, &c. among which the silver dish belonging to the Duke of Northumberland, is thought a great curiosity. The Roman highways which yet remain, are classed amongst the antiquities left by that people.

The Saxon antiquities in England are chiefly edifices. Many churches remain which were for the most part, constructed in the Saxon period; and some are extant of the tenth, or perhaps the ninth century. The vaults erected by Grimbold, at Oxford, in the reign of Alfred, are esteemed curious

curious relics of Saxon architecture. Mr. King has ably illustrated the remains of the Saxon castles. The oldest seem to consist of one solitary tower, square or hexagonal; one of the rudest specimens is Coningsburg Castle in Yorkshire: but as that region was subject to the Danes till the middle of the tenth century, it is more generally thought to be Danish. Among the smaller remains of Saxon art, may be mentioned the shrines for preserving relics, which some suppose to present the diminutive rudiments of what is styled the Gothic architecture; and the illuminated manuscripts, which often afford curious memorials of the state of manners and knowledge.

At Winchester is shown the round table of king Arthur, with the names of the knights. The antiquity of this table has been disputed by Camden and later writers; but if it be not British, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Winchester served as the burying-place of several Saxon kings, whose bones were collected together by Bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity present themselves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be discerned from the Normanic; and the British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon characters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witness, to his respective cross. The Danish erections in England are hardly discernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences; but their forts are square.

The Danish power in England, says Pinkerton, though of considerable duration in the north, was in the south brief and transitory. The camps of that nation were circular, like those of the Belgæ and Saxons, while those of the Roman armies are known by the square form: and it is believed that the only distinct relics of the Danes are some castles to the north of the Humber, and a few stones with Runic inscriptions.

The monuments styled Norman, rather to distinguish their epoch than from any information that Norman architects were employed, are reputed to commence after the Conquest, and to extend to the fourteenth century; when what is called the rich Gothic began to appear, which, in the sixteenth century, was supplanted by the mixed; and this in its turn yielded to the Grecian. In general the Norman style far exceeds the Saxon in the size of the edifices, and the decoration of the parts. The churches become more extensive and

lofty, and though the windows retain the circular arch, they are larger and more diversified; the circular doors are festooned with more freedom and elegance; and uncouth animals begin to yield to wreaths of leaves and flowers. The solitary keep, or tower, of the Saxon castle, is surrounded with a double wall, inclosing courts and dwellings of large extent, defended by turrets and double ditches, with a separate watch-tower, called the Barbican. Among others, the cathedrals of Durham and Winchester may be mentioned as venerable monuments of Anglo-Norman architecture; and the castles are numerous and well known. What is called the Gothic, or pointed arch, is generally supposed to have first appeared in the 13th century; and in the next it became universal in religious edifices. The windows diffused to great breadth and loftiness, and divided into branching interstices, enriched with painted glass, the clustering pillars of excessive height, spreading into various fret-work on the roof, constitute, with decorations of smaller note, what is called the rich Gothic style, visible in the chapel of King's College at Cambridge, and many other grand specimens in this kingdom. The spire corresponds with the interior; and begins about the thirteenth century to rise boldly from the ancient tower, and diminish from the sight in a gradation of pinnacles and ornaments.

All England is full of Anglo-Norman monuments, so called, because, though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman origin, yet the expence was defrayed by Englishmen, with English money. York Minster, and Westminster Hall and Abbey, are, perhaps, the finest specimens to be found in Europe of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals and old churches in the kingdom are more or less in the same taste, if we except St. Paul's. In short, those erections are so common, that they scarcely deserve the name of curiosities. It is uncertain whether the artificial excavations found in some parts of England are British, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old castle of Ryegate in Surrey is very remarkable, and seems to have been designed for secreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invasion. It contains an oblong-square hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the same rock, for sitting upon; and tradition says, that it was the room in which the barons of England met during the wars with king John. The rock itself is soft and very practicable; but it is difficult to say where the excavation, which is continued in a square passage, about six feet high, and four wide, terminates, because the work is in some places fallen in.

SECTION III.

Account of the Origin, Persons, Dress, Manners, Customs, Characters, Dispositions, &c. of the English People—Population—The Language, State of Learning—Commerce, Manufactures, &c. of the Country.

Origin.—THE aboriginal inhabitants of this nation are generally allowed to have been the Gaels, or Southern Celts, who appear to have proceeded into these islands from the nearest shores of France or Holland, at a very early period.

In later times this Celtic colony was vanquished by the Cimbri, or Northern Celts from Germany, &c. the ancestors of the modern Welsh, who, to this day, style themselves *Cymri*, and their language *Cymraig*. The original Gaelic inhabitants appear to have almost entirely evacuated the country, and retired to Scotland or Ireland, where to this day the Gaelic dialect of the Celtic language still exists.

To the Celtic population of England succeeded the Gothic. The Scythians or Goths, advancing from Asia, drove the Cimbri or Northern Celts before them; and at a period long preceding the Christian æra, had seized on that part of Gaul which is nearest to Great Britain, where they acquired the provincial denomination of Belgæ. Their passage to England followed; and when Cæsar first explored Britain, he informs us that the primitive inhabitants were driven into the interior parts, while the regions on the south-east were peopled with Belgic colonies. Those Belgæ may be justly regarded as the chief ancestors of the English nation; for the Saxons, Angles, and other northern invaders, though of distinguished courage, were far from being sufficiently numerous to form a population; scarcely an instance occurs of their being accompanied by women. These invasions may, in part, be paralleled by the subsequent conquests of the Danes and Normans, who assimilated themselves to the manners and customs of the people whom they subdued, so that in the course of a very short time little remained of them as a distinct people. The introduction by William I. of the feudal system gave, for several centuries, a quite different form of government, ill suited to the spirit and independence of the inhabitants, who, during the succeeding reigns, took every opportunity of reducing the power of their monarchs, and ultimately succeeded. This spirit of independence still continues, and is a leading trait of our national character, being as it were introduced into the natural formation of every Englishman; who, among foreigners, on this account are generally reckoned proud and haughty in their carriage and demeanour.

Persons and Dress.—The people of England in their persons are generally well sized, regularly

featured, fair, and florid in their complexions. It must, however, be allowed that the vast number of foreigners who have intermarried with the natives have given a cast to their persons and complexions different from those of their ancestors 150 years ago. The women, in their manners, shape, features, and complexion, appear so modest, graceful, and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But, beside these external graces, they are still more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanliness, tender affection for their husbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domestic life.

The simplicity of the English apparel excites the surprise of foreigners, which even among the great is very plain, except on the days of court festivity. The dress of the ladies is rather elegant than splendid; they have now abandoned the tight form, so prejudicial to health, and have adopted much of the Grecian ease and elegance. The people in general are neat in their apparel; and the dress of a tradesman or mechanic, on particular occasions, is not merely an indication of industry and decency, but is equal in quality to that of the nobleman.

Manners, Customs, Dispositions, Characters, &c.—In their general deportment the natives of this country are grave and phlegmatic, with an occasional admixture of vivacity; being not inferior in true wit and humour to any other nation. They are remarkable for a nervous sensibility, which has been considered one of the sources of those singularities that so strongly characterize the English nation. They sometimes magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet, when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution or constancy of mind. They are fond of each other's society, and mutual association; which, when kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, prove excellent antidotes against those mental evils so peculiar to the English that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

These observations chiefly apply to the higher orders of life, which must be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change since the accession of the House of Hanover, and especially of late years. The French revolution not only affected the political, but the moral institutions of former ages: those restraints, which the wisdom of the greatest legislators had imposed upon mankind, were rudely thrown down; and religion was scouted as a bug-bear, introduced for political purposes, to keep the vulgar in awe. These tenets, so consonant with the depraved passions of men, have spread like wild-fire through almost every nation in Europe, and introduced a freedom of thought, and

and looseness of manners that cannot too much be deplored. The English nobility and gentry now assimilate their manners to those of foreigners, with whom, much to their discredit, they cultivate a more frequent intercourse than their forefathers did. They do not now travel to bring home the vices of the countries they visit; but for the purposes of society, and at a more advanced period of life, when their judgments are mature, and their passions regulated. This has enlarged society in England, which foreigners now visit as commonly as Englishmen visited them; and the effects of the intercourse become daily more visible, especially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex. The courts of law, for the last few years, present a melancholy picture of female incontinency and depravity in the higher circles of life; which great corruption of manners is justly attributed to this intercourse.

Such of the nobility and gentry as do not strike into those walks of life, affect what we call a snug, rather than a splendid way of living. They study and understand, better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houses, gardens, equipages, and estates; and they spare no cost to purchase it. This disposition renders them less communicative than they might be; but the few connections which they do form, are more sincere, cheerful and indissoluble. Similar habits descend amongst the lower ranks, and are discernible among tradesmen. This love of snugness and conveniency may be called the ruling passion of the English people, and is the ultimate end of all their application and fatigues. A good œconomist, with a fair run of trade, is generally, when turned of fifty, in a condition to retire from business with a comfortable maintenance, either arising from estates, or money in the funds.

Nothing is a greater proof of the humanity of the English than the large subscriptions for public charities, raised by all denominations and degrees of both sexes; particularly when it is recollected that the persons who contribute to those collections are at the same time assessed, in proportion to their property, for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for their maintenance; and upwards of three millions sterling are said to be disbursed yearly in this country for charitable purposes. The institutions of extra-parochial infirmaries, hospitals, &c. as we have already shewn, are now to be found in almost every county in the kingdom; and if we add to these the many charity and Sunday schools, together with the number of benevolent societies throughout the kingdom, the above sum will not be considered an exaggeration.

A fact which has often surprised foreigners is, that among the generality of the English, of all ranks, an unpardonable preference is given to

wealth, above most other considerations. Both in public and private, riches are often thought to compensate for the absence of almost every good quality. This failing arises partly from the people being so much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the aristocratical part of their constitution, which makes the possession of property a qualification for the legislature, and almost every other species of magistracy, government, honour, and distinction.

An Englishman of education and reading is the most accomplished gentleman in the world; but he is too often shy and reserved in his communications. This unamiable coldness is so far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural constitution. Contemporary learning and genius often do not meet with suitable regard; and it is not unusual for Englishmen to throw aside the best productions of literature if they are not acquainted with the author.

The unevenness of the English in their conversation is very remarkable; sometimes it is sprightly, and replete with wit; sometimes it is solid, ingenious, and argumentative; at others it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon disgust; and all these variations occur in the same person. In many of their convivial meetings they are noisy, and their wit is often offensive, while the loudest are the most applauded. This is particularly apt to be the case in large companies; but in smaller and more select parties all the pleasures of rational conversation and agreeable society are enjoyed in England in a very high degree.

Courage is a quality that seems to be congenial to the English nation. Boxing with the fists, though a brutal exercise, is a custom peculiar to the English, being seconded by a strength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the English soldier an infinite superiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet screwed upon the musquet. The English courage has likewise the property, under able commanders, of being equally passive as active. Their soldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger; but when they deliver it, it has a most dreadful effect upon their enemies: and in naval engagements they are unequalled.

The English are not remarkable for invention, but they are particularly so for their improvements upon the invention of others: and in the mechanical arts they excel all nations in the world. The intense application which an Englishman gives to any favourite study is incredible, and seems to absorb all his other ideas. This circumstance creates numerous instances of mental absence that are to be found in the nation.

What has been said concerning the English is to be understood of them in general, as they are at present; for it is certain that every year produces strong

strong indications of alteration in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and a few preceding wars, the immense acquisitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and the amazing increase of territorial as well as commercial property in the East Indies, have introduced a species of people among the English who have become rich without industry, and by diminishing the value of gold and silver, have created a new system of finance in the nation. Hitherto the consequence seems to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a spirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the most fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds to equal or surpass the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of business, which prevailed so lately at the accession of the present family to the crown, are now disregarded for tasteless extravagance of dress and equipage, and the most expensive amusements and diversions, not only in the capital, but in every trading town in the kingdom.

The customs of the English have, since the beginning of the last century, undergone an almost total alteration. Their ancient hospitality subsists but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occasions. Many of their favourite diversions are now disused; and those remaining are operas, dramatic exhibitions, *ridottos*, and sometimes masquerades in or near London; but concerts of music, and card and dancing assemblies, are common all over the kingdom. Stag and fox hunting, horse-races, &c. are diversions of which the English are fond, even to infatuation. The English are remarkably cool, both in losing and winning at play; but the former is frequently attended with acts of suicide. Next to horse-racing and hunting, *cock-fighting*, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diversion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both classes assemble round the pit in the Park at those matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of this generous animal; every spectator being concerned in a bet, sometimes of high sums. The athletic diversion of cricket is still kept up in England, and is sometimes practised by people of the highest rank. There are many other pastimes which are common in England, some of them of a very robust nature, such as cudgelling, wrestling, bowls, skittles, quoits, &c. not to mention foot and ass-races, dancing, puppet-shows, and, above all, ringing of bells, a species of music which the English boast they have brought into an art. The barbarous diversions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England as the shows of the gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, though often practised; and all places of public diversion, excepting the royal theatres, are under regu-

lations by act of parliament. Diversions which are common in other countries, such as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, swimming, angling, fowling, coursing, and the like, are also familiar to the English. Two kinds of exercise highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them; and these are rowing and sailing: the latter was patronised and encouraged by his present Majesty's father, the late Prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The English are amazingly fond of skating, in which, however, they are not very expert; but they are adventurous in it, often to the danger and loss of their lives. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, though without answering the purposes of the rich; for the farmer and country people destroy the game in their nests which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game among so free a people as the English, has always been considered as an odium, and the revenue which it brings is quite insignificant.

The houses in England are peculiarly commodious, neat, and cleanly; and domestic architecture seems to be in this country at its greatest perfection. The English are generally esteemed to exceed the bounds of moderation in the use of animal food. If stomachic diseases are more frequent here than in other countries, they may be ascribed to the immoderate use of heavy malt liquors, which is remarked by foreigners as a singularity in English diet. The great consumption of tea is another custom peculiar to the English, the use of that plant being more rare in other European countries. To some constitutions it is admitted to be beneficial; but among the lower orders its enervating powers are too often attempted to be corrected by an application to spirituous liquors. It is much to be lamented, that porter, the peculiar malt beverage of the metropolis and its environs, which ought to be composed solely of malt and hops, is too generally debased by other ingredients.

The ceremonies of marriage, burial, &c. are so well known, that it would be quite superfluous to enter into a description of them.

Population.—We have already, at the beginning of our work, given a general outline of the population of this country; but as, no doubt, it will be gratifying to the reader to gain every information on this important subject, the following table of its progressive increase may not be unacceptable.

In 1337	it was	2,992,978
1483	—	4,688,000
1688	—	5,500,000
1700	—	6,000,000
1750	—	7,000,000
1775	—	7,888,000
1790	—	8,500,000

In 1801 it was ascertained, by order of parliament, and the amount of each parish printed in a large volume. The following table presents a general statement :

PERSONS.			OCCUPATIONS.			Total of Persons.
	Males.	Females.	Persons employed in Agriculture.	In Trade and Manufactures.	Other Persons.	
England	3,987,935	4,433,490	1,524,227	1,789,531	4,606,530	8,331,434
Army and Navy	469,188					469,188
Convicts on board the Hulks }	1,410					1,410
	4,458,533	4,433,490	1,524,227	1,789,531	4,606,530	8,802,032

The great increase of the population within the last century, is partly to be attributed to the decrease of mortality, from the superior skill and treatment of that formerly fatal disease, the small-pox, which made so much havoc in the rising generation; and partly to the improvement in building our great manufacturing towns and cities. The scale of mortality in England appears to have been on the average of the last ten years, as 1 to 48 of the existing population. One out of every 22 are calculated to die abroad, in the employments of war and commerce. The number of males born throughout the last century, exceeds that of the females, by about 4 in every 100; but this does not quite counteract the greater number of males who die abroad, since the females who are buried at home, surpass the number of males by about 1 in every 200. There can be little doubt but the population of England is rapidly increasing, notwithstanding the great destruction caused by the long continuance of disastrous warfare. The discovery of vaccination by Dr. Jenner, has already snatched thousands from the grave; and when it is recollected that 1 out of every 10 children are known to die, who catch this disease in the natural way, and 1 out of every 30 who have it by inoculation, both of which may now be prevented, the benefits derived from this blessed discovery must be incalculable, adding annually an immense number to the existing population.

To the enumeration of the inhabitants of England, may be added that of our exterior colonies, the following sketch of which will present at one view an outline of the amazing powers of this growing empire.

The British Empire in EUROPE, including the Norman Isles, Gibraltar, Malta, &c.	16,000,000
ASIA—New South Wales, India, &c.	20,000,000
Carried over	36,000,000

Brought forward	36,000,000
AFRICA—Cape of Good Hope, Madeira, Goree, &c.	120,000
AMERICA—Canada, Nova Scotia, West Indies, &c.	3,880,000

Making a grand Total of 40,000,000

Language.—The languages of Europeans in general are derived from the Gothic or Latin, which are the sources of the English, that partakes of the force of the Gothic and the melody of the Latin dialects. There are still extant many manuscripts written in the Anglo-Saxon, or Old English language; and Chaucer, who wrote in the time of Edward III. presents what may be termed the rude dawn of the English language. This language or speech made such rapid advances in the course of the next century, that very little difference could be traced between that which prevailed in the reign of Henry VI. and afterwards in the reign of Henry VIII. In the reign of Elizabeth, the English language had acquired such copiousness, dignity, force, and melody, as to make a very powerful impression, both with respect to sense and sound. Sidney's Defence of Poesy is allowed to be a good specimen of English poetry; and Hooker's Ecclesiastical Polity, and other large works of that period, are still read and admired. The common translation of the Bible is a noble specimen of the dignified prose of the following reign, that of James I.

The English language enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expressive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spanish, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is, however, subject to some considerable provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties: but

but this chiefly affects the lowest of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred persons, there is little difference in their pronunciation all over the kingdom. People of fortune and education in England, of both sexes, also commonly either speak or understand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spanish: but it has been observed, that foreign nations have great difficulty in understanding the few English who talk Latin; which is, perhaps, the reason why that language is much disused in England, even by the learned professions.

The construction of the English language is peculiar, and renders the study of it very difficult to foreigners. The German, and other Gothic dialects, present declensions of nouns, and other correspondencies with the Latin; while in the English all such objects are accomplished by prefixes.—Anomalies also abound, and are too deeply rooted, ever to be eradicated by grammatical rules. As short specimens of the various languages of the globe are occasionally inserted to enable the reader to judge of the relative origins of nations, the Lord's Prayer is generally chosen, which shall here be given in Anglo-Saxon.

Uren fader thic arth in Heofnas. Sie gehalgud thin noma. To cymeth thyn Ryc. Sie thin willa, sue is in Heofnas and in eorþo. Uren hlaf oferwistlic sel us to daeg. And forgeve us scylda urna sue we forgesan scyldgum urum. And no inlead usigo in custnang. Ah gefrig usich from ife. Amen.

Learning and Learned Men.—England may be looked upon as another word for the seat of learning and the Muses. Her great Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbarism and ignorance overspread the rest of Europe; nor has there, since his time, been wanting a continual succession of learned men, who have distinguished themselves by their writings or studies. The English institutions for the benefit of study partake of the character of their learning. They are solid and substantial, and provide for the ease, the disencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the convenience of its professors; witness the universities of Oxford and Cambridge: institutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were respected even amidst the barbarous rage of civil war. The industrious Leland, who was himself a moving library, was the first who published a short collection of the lives and characters of those learned persons who preceded the reign of his master Henry VIII. among whom he has inserted several of the blood-royal of both sexes, particularly a son and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the Confessor, and other Saxon princes, some of whom were equally devoted to Mars and to the Muses.

In speaking of the dark ages, we cannot omit the mention of that prodigy of learning and natural

philosophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in science to the great Bacon, Lord Verulam, as the latter was to Sir Isaac Newton. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year 1294. Mr. Walpole (the late Lord Orford) has preserved the memory of some noble and royal English authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muses; and to his work we must refer. Since the Reformation, England resembles a galaxy of literature; and it is but doing justice to the memory of Cardinal Wolsey, though otherwise a dangerous and profligate minister, to acknowledge, that both his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of classical learning in England. As many of the English clergy had different sentiments in religious matters, at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to settle in England. Edward VI. during his short life, greatly encouraged these foreigners, and shewed dispositions for cultivating the most useful parts of learning, had he lived. During the bloody and bigotted reign of Queen Mary, learning as well as liberty, suffered an almost total eclipse in England. Elizabeth, her sister, was herself a learned princess. She advanced many persons of consummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and state; but she seems to have considered their literary accomplishments to have been only secondary to their civil. In this she shewed herself a great politician; but she would have been a more amiable queen, had she raised genius from obscurity; for though she was no stranger to Spenser's Muse, she suffered herself to be so much imposed upon by a tasteless minister, that the poet languished and died in obscurity. Though she relished the beauties of the divine Shakspeare, yet we know not that he was distinguished by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parsimony was nobly supplied by her favourite the Earl of Essex, the politest scholar of his age, and his friend the Earl of Southampton, who were both liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Casaubon, and other foreign authors of distinction, even of different principles. He was not himself a great author; but his example had a considerable effect upon his subjects; for in his reign were formed those great masters of polemic divinity, whose works are almost inexhaustible mines of knowledge. The second Bacon, who has been already mentioned, was by him created Viscount Verulam, and Lord High Chancellor of England. He was likewise the patron of Camden and other historians, as well as antiquarians, whose works are to this day standards in those studies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that English learning is under obligations to James I. though,

though, as he had a very pedantic taste himself, he was the means of diffusing a similar taste among his subjects.

His son, Charles I. cultivated the polite arts, especially sculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artists; so that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a second Athens; and the collections he made for that purpose, considering his pecuniary difficulties, were stupendous. His favourite, the Duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that respect; and laid out the amazing sum of £400,000 upon his cabinet of paintings and curiosities.

The Earl of Arundel was another Mæcenæus of that age, and greatly distinguished himself by his collection of antiquities, particularly his famous marble inscriptions, called the Arundelian marbles, now preserved at Oxford. Charles and his court had little relish for poetry; but such was his generosity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increased the salary of his poet laureate, the famous Ben Jonson, from 100 marks to £100 *per annum*, and a tierce of Spanish wine, which salary is continued to this day.

Learning and the arts suffered greatly during the time of the civil wars. But many very learned men, under Cromwell, followed their studies, to the vast benefit of every branch of learning; and numerous works of great literary merit appeared about this time. Usher, Walter, Willis, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were favoured by the Protector; and he would also have filled the universities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of safety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly distinguished by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, and especially by the institution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of those studies; and, though irreligious himself, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than at this period. The incomparable *Paradise Lost*, by Milton, was published in his reign, but not read or attended to in proportion to its merit; though it was far from being disregarded so much as has been commonly apprehended. This reign, notwithstanding the looseness of the court in several respects, is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotson, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit assumed more majesty, a better style, and truer energy, than it had ever known before; classical literature recovered many of its native graces; and though England could not, under him, boast of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet Sir Christo-

pher Wren introduced a more general regularity than had ever been known before in architecture. Nor was Sir Christopher merely distinguished by his skill as an architect: his knowledge was very extensive; and his discoveries in philosophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the newly established Royal Society. Some excellent English painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) also flourished in this reign.

The reign of James II. is chiefly distinguished, in the province of literature, by those compositions that were published by the English divines against popery, and which, for strength of reasoning, and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular esteem for the latter, as he had also for Tillotson and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius.

Learning and the arts received considerable encouragement under the auspices of Queen Anne, which placed her court at least on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its most splendid days. Many of the great men who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were still alive, and in the full exercise of their faculties, when a new race sprung up in the republic of letters and the arts. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, Lord Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verse and prose, need only to be mentioned, to be admired; and the English were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philosophy kept pace with the polite arts; and even religious and political disputes contributed to the advancement of learning.

The ministers of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and some of them were of no mean talents themselves. George II. was not himself a literary character; yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the number of learned and ingenious men it produced. Hume, Smollet, Fielding, Richardson, Young, Thompson, &c. may with propriety be said to be inferior to none in their respective style of writing. The bench of bishops was well provided with able prelates in the early years of his reign; but the laxity of morals, and want of zeal, in the inferior clergy, gave rise to a sectarian spirit, which spread with rapidity through the kingdom, diffusing light and knowledge into the lower orders of society, which evidently underwent great changes for the amelioration of their manners, and improvement of their morals, though not precisely in the way that some good men could have wished.

During the present reign great progress has been made in literary attainments and the polite arts in England.

England. Among its learned ornaments might be enumerated Drs. Johnson, Goldsmith, and Robertson; together with Foote, Garrick, Judge Blackstone, Burke, Sir W. Jones, &c. &c. To which might be added several now living, who are known not only to equal all who have preceded them, in knowledge and information, but greatly to exceed them. The Royal Academy has been instituted; some very able artists have arisen; and the annual public exhibitions of painting and sculpture have proved extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a spirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general. But, notwithstanding these favourable circumstances, the fine arts have been far from meeting with that public patronage to which they have so just a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with statues. The sculptors meet with little employment, nor is the historical painter much patronised; though the British artists of the present age have proved that their genius for the fine arts is equal to that of any other nation. One branch of art which has of late years been brought to the *acmé* of perfection, is painting in water-colours. There are two annual exhibitions of this kind of paintings; and a single landscape or figure-piece is frequently sold for 100 guineas.

The English also excel in what we call the learned professions. Their courts of justice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than those which any other country can boast of.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, chemistry, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the English. The same may be said of music and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechanism are now reduced in England to sciences, and that, too, without any public encouragement, except such as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose.

Universities.—We have already mentioned the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have produced more learned men than any other in Europe. Their magnificent buildings, which in splendor and architecture rival the most superb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners, who visit them, conceive of literary societies. Each university sends two members to the imperial parliament; and their chancellors and officers have a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independence. The Cambridge estates are estimated at £60,000 *per annum*, and those of Oxford at double that sum.

Manufactures and Commerce.—It is well known

that commerce and manufactures have raised the English to be the first and most powerful people in the world. Historical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is sufficient then to say, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the scale of commerce. She planned some settlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expence attending them to be defrayed by her subjects; and indeed she was too parsimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial schemes for the English trade. The East India Company owes to him their success and existence; and British America saw her most flourishing colonies rise under him and his family. The spirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty; and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation was greatly increased. We cannot be expected to follow commerce through all her fluctuations, but shall only give a general representation of the commercial interest of the nation.

The present system of English politics may properly be said to have taken rise in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. At this time the Protestant religion was established, which naturally allied us to the reformed states, and made all the Popish powers our enemies. We began in the same reign to extend our trade, by which it became necessary for us also to watch the commercial progress of our neighbours, and, if not to incommode and obstruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours. We then likewise settled colonies in America, which became the great scene of European ambition; for, seeing with what treasures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conquest or plantation would certainly fill the mother-country with gold and silver.

The discoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the necessity of long voyages, produced in a few years a great multiplication of shipping. The sea was considered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of sovereignty arose, called *naval dominion*.

In the beginning of the reign of Queen Elizabeth we had not only naval stores, but ships from our neighbours. Germany furnished us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thousand other things, came from France. Portugal furnished us with sugars; all the produce of America was brought to us from Spain; and Venetians and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of the East Indies at their own price. The legal interests of money was twelve per cent.; and the common price of our land, ten or twelve

twelve years' purchase. Our manufactures were few, and those but indifferent; the number of English merchants very small; and our shipping much inferior to what lately belonged to the American colonies. But the persecution of the Protestants in France and other countries in Europe, induced vast numbers of these people to emigrate into this kingdom, where they were kindly received by Elizabeth and our succeeding monarchs. These persecuted sufferers introduced into these islands the first beginnings of those extensive manufactures, which have been one of the principal causes of rendering this the most opulent nation in the universe: for England is, of all other countries, the most proper for trade, as well from its situation as an island, as from the freedom and excellence of its constitution, and its natural products. For exportation, our country produces many of the most substantial and necessary commodities; as butter, cheese, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, saffron, &c. Our corn sometimes preserves other countries from starving; and our horses are the most serviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardiness, beauty, and strength. Beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biscuits, &c. are supplied by us to victual not only our own fleets, but also many foreign vessels that come and go. Our iron we export, manufactured in great guns, carcasses, bombs, &c. Almost incredible is the value likewise of other goods exported from hence, viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, shoes, household stuff, ale, beer, red herrings, pilchards, salmon, oysters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c. &c.

Scarcely a manufacture in Europe can be mentioned but what is brought to great perfection in England. The woollen manufacture is the most considerable, and exceeds in goodness and quantity that of any other nation. It was regarded as a grand staple of England as early as the 12th century, but was chiefly exported in a crude state, till Edward III. encouraged settlements of Flemish manufacturers, when it soon became the prime article of commerce, and taxes and foreign subsidies were estimated by sacks of this commodity. Great quantities of raw wool continued to be exported to the Netherlands and Hanse Towns; but in the reign of Elizabeth it began to be chiefly manufactured at home, and the exportation of woollen cloths was then valued at a million and a half annually. The exportation of raw wool was at length prohibited; and the woollen manufacture is of great importance, and attracts particular regard and attention.

Hardware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, swords, and other arms, are of superior excellence; household utensils of brass, iron, and pewter, also, are very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in high esteem.

That branch of commerce which we enjoyed exclusively, viz. the commerce with our colonies, was long regarded as the most advantageous. But since the separation of the American States from Great Britain, the trade, the industry, and manufactures of the latter have continually increased. New markets have opened, the returns from which are more certain and less tedious than those from America. By supplying a greater variety of markets, the skill and ingenuity of our artisans have taken a wider range; the productions of their labour have been adapted to the wants, not of rising colonies, but of nations the most wealthy and the most refined; and our commercial system, no longer resting on the artificial basis of monopoly, has been rendered more solid as well as more liberal.

The British manufactures have been recently estimated to produce the following sums annually in round numbers:

Woollen	£20,000,000
Cotton	12,000,000
Leather	10,000,000
Silk	4,000,000
Plating, Steel, &c. .	4,000,000
Paper	3,000,000
Lead	2,000,000
Iron	2,000,000
Tin	2,000,000
Flax	2,000,000
Glass	2,000,000
Porcelain	2,000,000
Hemp	1,500,000
Earthenware	1,000,000
Other Manufactures .	12,500,000
	80,000,000

The places where most of the English manufactures mentioned in the above account are fabricated, have already been mentioned in our description of the counties; but the following additional observations may not be thought obtrusive. Cornwall and Devonshire supply tin and lead; and woollen manufactures are common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of sheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somersetshire, besides, furnishing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, stockings, and caps. Bristol has many very important manufactures; its glass bottle and drinking-glass one alone occupying fifteen large houses; its brass-wire manufactures are also very considerable. Extensive manufactures of all kinds (glass, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular) are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and silver manufacturers of London, through the encouragement given them by the court

court and the nobility, exceed those of any country in Europe; and such is the increase of luxury, that there is scarcely a creditable street in London that does not contain one or more jewellers' shops. Colchester is famous for its manufacture of baize and serges; Exeter for serges and long ells; and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camlets, druggets, and stockings. Birmingham carries on an amazing trade in excellent hardware manufactures, particularly snuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, shoe-buckles, etuis, and many other sorts of steel and brass wares. It is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of English art and industry is to be seen; for such are their excellent inventions for fabricating hardwares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furnish the same of an inferior kind. Coals are cheap in this part of the country, as indeed they need be; for one company of iron manufacturers in Shropshire use every day five hundred tons of coals in their iron works. In Great Britain there is made every year from fifty to sixty thousand tons of pig-iron, and from twenty to thirty thousand tons of bar-iron.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarser and slighter woollen manufactures: witness those of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond; and, above all, Manchester, which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, ticken, checks, and the like stuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its highest magistrate a constable. Porcelain and earthenware of a fine quality have of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worcestershire and Staffordshire. The English carpets, especially those of Axminster, Wilton, and Kidderminster, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, are extremely durable, and consequently are a vast saving to the nation. Paper, which till very lately was imported in great quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every part of the kingdom.

Parliament has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of salt-petre, which was first attempted in England by Sir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the East India Company.

Imports.—From the northern parts of Europe are imported timber, deals, tallow, hemp, flax, isinglass, iron, &c. From the southern parts we receive wines, brandies, lace, silk, skins, oil, olives, fruits, drugs, &c. &c. From the states of North America, tobacco, rice, indigo, turpentine, furs, timber, hemp, flax, iron, pitch, tar, and lumber. From the West Indies, sugar, rum, cotton, coffee, ginger, pepper, guaiacum, sarsaparilla, manchineal, mahogany, gums, &c. From Africa, gold dust,

ivory, gums, &c. From the East Indies, Persia, and China, tea, rice, spices, drugs, colours, silks, cotton, salt-petre, shawls, and other products of the loom.

Exports—In Germany and the other northern parts of Europe, it may be said that there is scarcely any article of our manufacture which is not eagerly sought after; but at present the rigorous measures which the war has produced causes a total stagnation of trade in that part of the world.

England exports to Italy woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fish, and East India goods.

To Spain we transmit all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fish, corn, iron and brass manufactures, haberdashery wares, assortments of linen from Germany and elsewhere, for the American colonies.

Portugal was formerly, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whose fleets and armies have more than once saved her from destruction, and have just increased the obligation by removing the whole royal family and the fleet to the Brazils; thus taking them from the grasp of Buonaparte, and opening new sources for the introduction of our industry. England sends to this country almost the same kind of merchandises as to Spain.

England sends to Turkey, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hardware, iron utensils, clocks, watches, verdigris, spices, cochineal, and logwood.

To the West India Islands the exports from England are Osnaburghs, a coarse kind of linen, with which the West Indians now clothe their slaves; linen of all sorts, with broad cloths and kerseys, for the planters and their families; silks and stuffs for their ladies and household servants; hats; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves, millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and silks; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese; iron-ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chissels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augurs, nails, lead, powder and shot; brass and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet-wares, snuffs, and in general whatever is raised or manufactured in Great Britain; together with all sorts of India goods.

To America, it may be asserted, we send almost every species of our manufacture.

The trade of England to the East Indies constitutes one of the most stupendous political as well as commercial machines that is to be met with in history. The trade itself is exclusive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. The company exports all kinds of

woollen manufacture, all sorts of hardware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver.

To the coast of Guinea, sundry sorts of coarse woollen and linen, iron, pewter, brass, and hardware manufactures, lead, shot, swords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glass manufactures. And, besides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately supplied the American colonies with negro slaves, to the number of above 100,000 annually.

To Arabia, Persia, China, and other parts of Asia, we send much foreign silver coin, and bullion, and sundry English manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and brass.

In the infancy of commerce to foreign parts it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations: hence the East India, South Sea, Hudson's Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal African Companies. The trade with Africa is now nearly annihilated, in consequence of the abolition of the slave-trade.

The prodigious extent of the trade of England, together with its rapid increase, will clearly appear from a comparative statement of the exports and imports of different periods, the value of which was as follows:

	Imports.	Exports.
In 1772	— £14,500,000	— £17,719,000
1783	— 13,325,000	— 14,741,000
1792	— 19,629,000	— 24,878,000
1797	— 21,450,000	— 28,947,000
1802	— 58,680,000	— 57,520,000

In the year 1797, it is supposed, that the clear profits on foreign trade to this country amounted at least to £10,000,000. The number of merchant-vessels is reckoned to amount to 16,000; and it is supposed that 140,000 men and boys are employed in the navigation.

The balance of trade in favour of England has been estimated, many years ago, at three millions sterling, and has since greatly increased.

As the quantity of circulating specie may in some measure indicate the extent of commerce, we may judge of the increase of the latter by comparing the sums which the three last monarchs found it necessary to coin. By George I. £8,725,921 sterling, were coined. In the long reign (thirty-three years) of George II. £11,966,576 sterling; and in the first twenty-four years of his present Majesty's reign, the sums coined amounted to £33,089,274 sterling.

The inland trade is valued at upwards of forty-two millions sterling. The coasting trade is said to give employment to about one hundred thousand people. The oyster fishery employs about ten thousand.

The riches of the country will be clearly perceived from the under-mentioned calculations. On introducing the Income Tax, Mr. Pitt gave the following estimate of the annual income of Great Britain:

The land rental, after deducting one-fifth	£20,000,000
The tenant's rental of land, deducting two-thirds of the rack-rent	6,000,000
The amount of tythes, deducting one fifth	4,000,000
The produce of mines, canal navigation, &c. deducting one-fifth	3,000,000
The rental of houses, deducting one-fifth	5,000,000
The profits of professions	2,000,000
The rental of Scotland, taking it at one-eighth of that of England	5,000,000
The income of persons resident in Great Britain, drawn from possessions beyond the seas	5,000,000
The amount of annuities from the public funds, after deducting one-fifth for exemptions and modifications	12,000,000
The profits on the capital employed in our foreign commerce	12,000,000
The profits employed on the capital in domestic trade, and the profits of skill and industry	28,000,000

In all £102,000,000

The gross assessment of the Property Tax, as returned April 1806, was £104,667,616.

More recent calculators state that the landed property of Great Britain affords the rental of £33,000,000, which, at 30 years' purchase, would yield £990,000,000; the rental of houses in England and Wales, at £7,436,000, and estimating that of Scotland at about a sixth, the value, at 15 years' purchase, might be about £130,000,000; the cattle and farming-stock, about £100,000,000; the furniture, apparel, &c. £26,000,000; the navy and merchant-ships have been valued at about £16,000,000; the goods in the hands of merchants and wholesale dealers, more than £13,000,000; and those in the hands of manufacturers and retail traders, more than £22,000,000. Including the money, of which the estimate is far from certain, the whole capital of Great Britain may be calculated at more than one thousand two hundred millions*.

Public Companies.—The fame of our Public Commercial Institutions has extended all over the world; and the Charters of the Bank, and the India Companies, &c. have been of such benefit to the nation, that every person should be acquainted with their nature and objects.

Bank of England.—The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the fifth and sixth years of King William and Queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England, in consideration of the loan of one million two hundred thousand pounds granted to the government; for which the subscribers re-

* An Harleian manuscript, No. 1398, states, that in the beginning of the 18th century, Gregory King supposed the value of England and Wales to be 650,000,000 £. The national debt is nearly 500,000,000 £.

ceived almost eight per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common seal, unless by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or suffer any person in trust for them to trade in any goods or merchandise; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and foreign gold and silver coin.

By an act passed in the eighth and ninth years of William III. they were empowered to enlarge their capital stock to £2,201,171 10s. It was then also enacted, that Bank stock should be a personal and not a real estate; that no contract, either in word or writing, for buying or selling Bank stock should be good in law, unless registered in the books of the Bank within seven days, and the stock transferred in fourteen days; and that it should be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common seal of the Bank, or any sealed Bank-bill, or any Bank-note, or to alter or erase such bills or notes.

By another act, passed in the seventh of Queen Anne, the company were empowered to augment their capital to £4,402,343, and they then advanced £400,000 more to the government; and in 1714, they advanced another loan of £1,500,000.

In the third year of George I. the interest of their capital was reduced to five per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver up as many Exchequer bills as amounted to two million pounds, and to accept an annuity of one hundred thousand pounds; and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their interests in their capital stock, such sums of money as in a general court should be found necessary. If any members should neglect to pay his share of the monies so called for, at the time appointed, by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it should be lawful for the Bank, not only to stop the dividend of such a member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in question, but also to stop the transfers of the share of such defaulter, and to charge him with the interest of five per cent. per annum, for the money so omitted to be paid; and if the principal and interest should be three months unpaid, the Bank should then have power to sell so much of the stock belonging to the defaulter as would satisfy the same.

At a subsequent period the Bank reduced the interest of the £2,000,000 lent to government from five to four per cent. and purchased several other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt, due to the Bank, reduced to £1,600,000; but in 1742, the company engaged to supply the government with £1,600,000 at three per cent. which is now called the three per cent. annuities; so that the government was now indebted to the company £3,200,000;

the one half carrying four, and the other three per cent.

In the year 1746 the company agreed that the sum of £986,800 due to them in the Exchequer bills unsatisfied, on the duties for licences to sell spirituous liquors by retail, should be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept an annuity of £39,442, the interest of that sum at four per cent. The company also agreed to advance the farther sum of £1,000,000 into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties arising by the malt and land-tax, at four per cent. for Exchequer bills to be issued for that purpose; in consideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with £986,800, the interest of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December 1757, and from that time to carry only three per cent.

In order to enable them to circulate these Exchequer bills, they established what is now called Bank circulation; the nature of which not being well understood, we shall be more particular in its explanation.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep cash sufficient to answer not only the common, but also any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them over and above the sum supposed necessary for these purposes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to say, in discounting bills of exchange, in buying gold and silver, and in government securities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above-mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger sum of money than what they deemed necessary to answer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current cash so large a sum as a million, with which they were obliged to furnish the government, without either lessening that sum they employed in discounting, buying gold and silver, &c. (which would have been very disadvantageous to them), or inventing some method that should answer all the purposes of keeping the million in cash. The method which they chose, and which fully answers their end, was as follows:—They opened a subscription, which they renew annually, for a million of money, wherein the subscribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank shall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. so advanced; in consideration of which, the Bank pays the subscribers four per cent. interest for the money paid in, and one-fourth per cent. for the whole sum they agree to furnish; and in case a call should be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the Bank further agrees to pay them at the rate of five per cent. per annum for such sum, till they

they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purposes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the subscribers, if no call is made upon them, which is in general the case, receive six and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the sum of £23,5000 per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account.

The Bank receives from the government for the advance of a million	} £30,000
The Bank pays to the subscribers who advance £100,000, and engage to pay (when called for) £900,000 more	
The clear gain to the Bank therefore is	£23,500

This is the state of the case, provided the company should make no call on the subscribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, because it would not only lessen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank stock may not improperly be called a trading stock, since with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and silver, in discounting bills of exchange, &c. Besides which, they are allowed by the government very considerable sums annually, for the management of the annuities paid at their office; all which advantages render a share in their stock very valuable, though it is not equal in value to the East India stock. The company make dividends of the profits half-yearly, of which notice is publicly given, when those who have occasion for their money may readily receive it; but private persons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their interest added to the principal.

Several other loans were afterwards granted from time to time to government by this company, till, in 1746, the whole debt due to them from the public was £11,686,800; and its divided capital had been raised, by different calls and subscriptions, to £10,780,000. In 1781, the sums lent to government amounted to upwards of £8,000,000, exclusive of the permanent debt of £11,686,800, which had been principally accumulated in the preceding years from the assistance rendered to government by advancing money, in anticipation of the land and malt taxes, and by making temporary advances on Exchequer bills and other securities. An agreement was now entered into for the renewal of their charter, which was considerably extended, on condition that the company should advance £2,000,000 on Exchequer bills at 3 per cent. to be paid off in three years from the sinking fund. In order to enable them to raise this advance, it was necessary to make a call of 8 per cent.

on their capital of £10,780,000, by which means that was increased to £11,642,000, the sum upon which they now divide; the dividend was also increased one-half per cent. so that it became 6 per cent. The total amount of their claims upon government in 1782 was £9,991,678. On account of the large advances to government, the great exportation of coin and bullion to Germany and Ireland, and several other circumstances, in the beginning of 1797 there was an universal demand for specie, from all parts of the country, which produced an order from the privy council, prohibiting the directors of the Bank from issuing any cash in payment, till the sense of parliament on the subject was obtained. This restriction was sanctioned by parliament, and a Secret Committee appointed to examine the state of the outstanding demands on the Bank and the funds for discharging the same. In the month of November following, this committee reported, that "The total amount of outstanding demands was £17,578,910, and the funds for discharging the same amounted to £21,418,460; leaving a balance at that time, in favour of the Bank, of £3,839,550, exclusive of the permanent debt of £11,686,800 due to them from government." The report farther stated, "That the cash and bullion in the Bank amounted to upwards of £6,000,000 sterling." From these statements the solidity and stability of the Bank are satisfactorily evinced; and, indeed, its solvency must be coeval with that of the government; all that it has advanced to the public must be lost, before its creditors can sustain any loss. No other banking company in England can be established by act of parliament, or can consist of more than six members. It acts not merely as an ordinary bank, but as a great engine of state. Since the above period it has made considerable advances to government, on the different taxes, which are frequently not paid up for several years.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and 24 directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the same manner as in the East India company. Thirteen, or more, compose a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company. The qualification for becoming entitled to be elected a director is £2000 Bank stock; a deputy-governor, £3000; and a governor £4000. £500 entitles a proprietor to a vote at the general courts, provided he has been in possession of it three months.

The East India Company — During the reign of Queen Elizabeth the first ideas of this company were formed; but it has since undergone great alterations. Its original shares were only £50 each, and the capital £369,891 5s.; but having a considerable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed at a general court to add the profits to the capital, by which

which the shares were doubled, and consequently each became of £100 value, and the capital was £739,782 10s.; to which if £963,369, the profits of the company to the year 1685, which by another vote was agreed to be added, the whole stock will be found to be £1,703,102. Though the establishment of this company was vindicated in the clearest manner by Sir Josiah Child, and other able writers; yet the partiality the Duke of York, afterwards James II. had for the African trade, together with the great losses the company sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which about this time occurred in Hindostan, damped the ardour of the public to support it; so that soon after the revolution in 1688, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent situation. This was in a great measure owing to its not having parliamentary sanction; in consequence of which its stock often sold for one-half less than it was really worth; and it was resolved that a new company should be erected, under the authority of parliament: this, after a considerable opposition from the old establishment, was at length effected, upon advancing £2,000,000 to the public at 8 per cent. which for a considerable time produced great altercation between the two parties; till, at length, in 1702 they were united by an *indenture tripartite*. In 1708 the yearly dividend of 8 per cent. on the £2,000,000 was reduced to 5 per cent. by a further loan of £1,200,000 without any additional interest; and a new charter was granted to them under the title of *The United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies*. Its exclusive right of trade was prolonged from time to time, and a farther sum was lent by the company in 1730; by which, though their privileges were extended for 33 years, yet the interest of their capital, which then amounted to £3,190,000, was reduced to 3 per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Those annuities are different from the trading stock of the company, the proprietors of which, instead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different shares, a dividend of the profits arising from the company's trade; and that rises or falls according to the circumstances of the company. A proprietor of stock to the amount of £1000 has a right to be a manager, and to a vote in the general council; £2000 is the qualification for a director, who are 24 in number, including the chairman and deputy chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, six a year for four years successively. The meetings, or, as they are called, Court of Directors, are to be held at least once a week; but are frequently oftener, being summoned as occasion requires. Out of the body of directors are chosen several committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the company's business;

viz.—the committee of correspondence, treasury, house-committee, warehouse, shipping, accounts, law-suits, and to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a secretary, cashier, clerks, and warehouse-keepers, and upwards of 2000 workmen in their numerous depôts for eastern produce.

The amazing territorial acquisitions of this company, computed to contain upwards of 200,000 square miles, with nearly 20,000,000 of inhabitants, must necessarily be attended with a proportionable increase of trade; which, according to a list recently laid before the House of Commons, employed in the country and foreign trade 110 ships, and 8170 men. This, joined to the dissensions among the managers at home and abroad, has of late greatly engaged the attention of the legislature. From the report of a committee in 1773, appointed by parliament on Indian affairs, it appears that this company, from 1708 to 1756, divided the sum of £12,000,000, or above £280,000 per annum; which, on a capital of £3,190,000, amounted to above 8½ per cent.; and, beside this, the capital stock of the company during this period had increased £180,000. Considerable alterations were made in the affairs and constitution of this company in 1773 by act of parliament. The mayor's court of Calcutta had till this time taken cognizance of the civil jurisprudence of India; but it was now enacted, that in lieu thereof a new court should be established, consisting of a chief justice, and three puisne judges, who should be appointed by the crown, and whose salary was fixed at £6000 per annum, with an additional £2000 to the chief justice. Of the different presidencies it was now enacted, that that of Bengal should have the superiority over the others; and that the right of nominating the governor general and council should be vested in the crown: their salaries were also fixed; that of the first at £25,000, and that of the four other at £10,000 per annum each.

In 1783 Mr. Fox, then secretary of state, brought forward his famous India bill, for new-regulating the company, under the supposed incompetency of the directors to manage effectually the vast affairs of the establishment, together with the then insolvent state of the company. The bill passed the Commons; but in the Lords it was considered as placing too great a power in the hands of any men, and which would be sure to operate against the necessary powers of the crown: after long debates it was thrown out by a majority of 16 peers, the consequence of this was a change of the ministry, and a general revolution in the cabinet. In the new bill introduced by Mr. Pitt, six persons were nominated by the king as Commissioners of the Affairs of India, of whom one of the secretaries of state and the chancellor of the exchequer for the time being

being should be two: the president to have the casting vote, if divided. New commissioners are to be appointed at the pleasure of the crown. This board is to superintend, direct, and control all acts, operations, and concerns, which any ways relate to the civil and military government or revenues of the British territories in the East Indies. They are sworn to execute the several powers and trusts reposed in them, without favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any persons whatever. The courts of directors are to deliver to them all minutes, orders, and resolutions of themselves; or the court of proprietors, with copies of all letters, orders and instructions appointed to be sent abroad, for their approbation or alteration: none to be sent until such previous communication, on any pretence whatsoever. The directors are still to appoint their servants abroad; but the king has power, by his secretary of state, to recal any person holding any office under the company, and make void their appointment. By this bill the governor and council of Bengal have a control over the other presidencies in all points which relate to any transaction with the country powers, peace and war, or to the application of the forces and revenue: but this court is subject to the absolute direction of the company at home, and in all cases, except those of immediate danger and necessity, restrained from acting without orders from England.

Soon after the passing of this act, Mr. Dundas being placed at the head of the board of control, introduced the laudable practice of bringing annually before a committee of the House of Commons, a statement of the financial affairs of the company abroad, exhibiting the balance upon the comparison of the revenues and charges of the several settlements. As the company's right to an exclusive trade was, by an act passed in 1781, to terminate in 1794, it became necessary to provide for that event, which was effectually done by Mr. Dundas's bill proposed in February 1793; which meeting the approbation of parliament, had the singular good fortune of giving equal satisfaction to the public and the company: to the public, because instead of £400,000, they were to receive £500,000 per annum from the revenues of India; and to the company, because they were still to preserve their power and privileges. In 1797 Mr. Dundas stated the total amount of the foreign revenues at £8,154,872, the charges upon it at £6,517,057, leaving a neat surplus of £1,637,815; he, at the same time, stated the amount of the receipts of the sales of the company at home at £7,316,916, which exceeded the costs and charges by nearly £1,000,000 sterling.

Since that period to the present time the company has acquired great extension of territory; but whether this will ultimately tend to the security of

these remote possessions, remains to be decided. The present charter expires in 1814; and great diversity of opinion is said to prevail among our leading men, as to the propriety of its renewal, there being many advocates for a free trade. During the season of 1809 great pecuniary damage is supposed to have been sustained by the loss of three valuable ships; and added to this, several unpleasant rumours respecting the unsettled state of this colony were circulated, which will require the most vigilant measures on the part of our government.

South Sea Company.—This institution, which was established for encouraging the fisheries in the South Seas, and other parts of America, has considerably declined in importance of late years. Its annuities are now reduced to three pounds per cent. the company is under the direction of a governor, sub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no person is qualified to be governor, his Majesty excepted, unless such governor has, in his own name and right, £5000 in the trading stock; the sub-governor is to have £4000; the deputy-governor £3000; and a director £2000, in the same stock. In every general court, every member having, in his own name and right, £500 in trading stock, has one vote; if £2000, two votes; if £3000, three votes; and if £5000, four votes.

The East India Company, the Bank of England, and the South Sea Company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the Million Bank, whose capital is only one million, constituted to purchase the reversion of the long Exchequer orders.

Some years ago the interest of all the debts owing by the government was reduced to three per cent.; excepting only the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders; but the South Sea company still continues to divide four per cent. on their present capital stock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the sums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the interest of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different stocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*; so when a person, who is not acquainted with transactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of stocks, where Bank stock is marked perhaps 127, India stock 134 or 134½, South Sea ditto 97½, &c. he is to understand that £100 of those respective stocks sell at such a time for those several sums.

On comparing the prices of the different stocks, it must be remembered, that the interest due on them from the time of the last payment is taken into the current price, and the seller never receives any separate consideration for it, except in the
case

case of India bonds, where the interest due is calculated to the day of the sale, and paid by the purchaser, over and above the premium agreed for. But, as the interest on the different stocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly understood, would lead a person not well acquainted with them, into considerable mistakes in his computations of their value; some always having a quarter's interest due on them more than others, which makes an appearance of a considerable difference in the price, when in reality there is none at all: thus, for instance, Old South Sea annuities sell for $85\frac{1}{2}$, or £85 10s. while New South Sea annuities fetch only $84\frac{1}{2}$, or £84 15s. though each of them produces the annual sum of 3 per cent. but the old annuities have a quarter's interest more due on them than the new annuities, which amounts to fifteen shillings, the exact difference. There is, however, one or two causes that will always make one species of annuities sell somewhat lower than another, though of the same real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a small capital, and there not being, for that reason, so many people at all times ready to buy into them, as into others where the quantity is larger; because it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular species of annuity, the capital of which is the smallest.

As every capital stock or fund of a company is raised for a particular purpose, and limited by government to a certain sum, it follows, that when that fund is completed, no stock can be bought of the company; though shares, already purchased, may be transferred from one person to another. This being the case, there is occasionally a great disproportion between the original value of the shares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than sellers, a person who is indifferent about selling will not part with his share without a profit to himself; and, on the contrary, if many are disposed to sell, and few inclined to buy, the value of such shares will naturally fall: besides this, they are materially affected by the arrival of pleasing intelligence from abroad, or the reverse. These observations may serve to give our readers some idea of the nature of that unjustifiable and discreditable practice called *stock-jobbing*; the mystery of which consists in nothing more than this:—The persons concerned in this traffic, called stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or sell, at a certain distant period, a particular quantity of some kind of stock; against which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, to raise or lower such stock, by spreading ruinous and fictitious stories in order to depress, or circulating favourable and flattering accounts if they wish to enhance the price. The persons who make

these contracts are not in general possessed of any real stock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only receive or pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price the stock was at when they made the contract, and what it happens to be at, when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for persons not worth £100 to make contracts for the buying or selling of £100,000 stock. In the language of Change-alley, the buyer is termed the *bull*, and the seller the *bear*: if it should so happen that in either case the buyer or seller is unable or unwilling to fulfil his contract, they are then said to be *lame ducks*, who are *waddled* out of the Exchange, and prohibited from again, in their own name, making a contract. Besides these, there are another set of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly have the same denomination; these are the great monied men, who are dealers in stock, and contractors with government, whenever any money is to be borrowed: these, indeed, are not fictitious, but real buyers and sellers of stock, but by raising false hopes or creating groundless fears, and other similar practices, they are enabled often to raise or depress the funds 1 or 2 per cent. at pleasure.

As long as the annuities, and interest for money advanced, are regularly paid, and the principal insured by both prince and people (a security not to be had in other nations), foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be interested in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandize, and Great Britain can never want cash to carry her schemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is established on the interest of both prince and people, which is the strongest security that individuals can possess.

SECTION IV.

A Description of the Established Religion of England, together with a short Outline of the different Sects—Its Naval and Military Strength—Revenues—Orders of Knighthood—Laws—Government, Constitution, &c. &c.

It is asserted by Eusebius and other ancient writers, that Christianity was first preached in South Britain by the apostles and their disciples; and it is reasonable to suppose, that the success of the Romans opened a way for the triumphs of the gospel. It is certain also, that many of the soldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Christians; and as their legions were repeatedly sent over to England, to extend as well as preserve their conquests.

quests, it is probable that thus Christianity was diffused among the natives. If any of the apostles visited this country and our heathen ancestors, it was St. Paul, whose zeal, diligence, and fortitude were abundant. But who was the first preacher, or when the precise year and period, the want of records leaves us at a loss; and all the traditions about Joseph of Arimathea and St. Peter's preaching the gospel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes suffering martyrdom here, are romantic fables and monkish legends. As early as the year 150, a great number of persons professed the Christian faith here; and, according to Archbishop Usher, in the year 182, there was a school of learning to provide the British churches with proper teachers; and from that period it seems as if Christianity advanced its benign influence among the inhabitants, though for a considerable time it was overclouded by the errors and superstitions of the Romish church. But John Wickliffe, an Englishman, educated at Oxford, in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted, those doctrines which had passed for orthodox during so many ages. It would be tedious in this part of our work to enter into a particular detail of the reformation of the English church; and we have accordingly left it to be introduced into the historical summary, which will be given in another section.

The constitution of the church is episcopal, being governed by bishops, whose benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which every bishop has a seat and vote in the House of Peers. The sovereigns of England, ever since the reign of Henry VIII. have been called, in public writs, the supreme heads of the church: but this title does not convey any spiritual meaning; as it only denotes the regal power to prevent any ecclesiastical differences, or, in other words, to substitute the king in place of the pope before the reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal economy of the church.

The church of England, under this description of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops, besides the bishop of Sodor and Man, who, not being possessed of an English barony, does not sit in the House of Peers. The two archbishops are those of Canterbury and York, who are dignified with the address of Your Grace. The former is the first peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the English church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of state. He is enabled to hold ecclesiastical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cognizable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege con-

sequently of granting, in certain cases, licences and dispensations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth above five pounds. Besides his own diocese, he has under him the bishops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worcester, Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Norwich, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Asaph, and Bangor.

By the constitution and laws of England the archbishop of Canterbury has such extensive powers, that, ever since the death of Archbishop Laud, the government of England has prudently thought proper to raise to that dignity men of very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of considerable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and consequently of the state.

The archbishop of York takes place of all dukes, not of the blood-royal, and of all officers of state, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, besides his own diocese, the bishoprics of Durham, Carlisle, Chester, and Sodor and Man.

The archbishop of Canterbury is styled Primate of all England; the archbishop of York, Primate of England, but is subordinate to the former in prerogative and jurisdiction: the archiepiscopal office, indeed, is rather a dignity than a jurisdiction; and the primates seldom interfere in any dioceses except their own.

The bishops are addressed by the appellation of Your Lordship, styled "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have all the privileges of peers; and the bishoprics of London, Winchester, Durham, Salisbury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to support their prelates in the rank of noblemen. The three former precede all the rest, who take place according to the seniority of consecration. English bishops are to examine and ordain priests and deacons, to consecrate churches and burying-places, and to administer the rite of confirmation. Their jurisdiction relates to the probate of wills; to grant administration of goods to such as die intestate; to take care of perishable goods when no one will administer; to collate the benefices; to grant institutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to visit their own dioceses once in three years.

On the occurrence of a vacancy in any see, archiepiscopal or episcopal, the dean and chapter apply to the king, who returns a *Congé d'Elire*, naming the person to be elected. A chapter of the prebendaries is then summoned by the dean, and they are called upon to elect the divine nominated. The solemnity is completed by the royal assent under

under the great seal, and by the confirmation and consecration performed by the metropolitan, or in his name. The prelate afterwards pays homage to the sovereign for his temporalities, or the baronies connected with the see, and compounds for the first fruits, which is the revenue of the first year, that is paid to the corporation for increasing the benefices of the indigent clergy. The only difference when a bishop is translated to another see, is the omission of consecration; and when an archbishop is nominated, the king appoints four more bishops to officiate at the confirmation.

The extent of the jurisdiction of the archbishops and bishoprics, together with the date of their institution, will appear from the following table:

ARCHBISHOPRICS.

- 596 *Canterbury*—Beside the bishoprics over which he presides, he has a diocese of which he may be said to be the bishop, consisting of the eastern part of the county of Kent.
- 1067 *York*—Who, to the other dignities, has the rank of bishop over the greatest part of Yorkshire.

BISHOPRICS.

- 596 *London**, containing Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertford.
- 604 *Rochester*—Part of Kent.
- 650 *Winchester*—Surrey, Hampshire, Isles of Wight, Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney.
- 656 *Litchfield and Coventry*—Stafford, Derby, and part of Warwick and Shropshire.
- 679 *Worcester*—Worcester, and part of Warwick.
- 680 *Hereford*—Hereford, and part of Shropshire.
- 690 *Durham*—Durham and Northumberland.
- 838 *Sodor and Man*—Isle of Man.
- 1050 *Exeter*—Cornwall and Devon.
- 1056 *Salisbury*—Wilts and Berkshire.
- 1070 *Lincoln*—Lincoln, Leicester, Huntingdon, Bedford, Buckingham, and part of Hertford.
- 1071 *Chichester*—Sussex.
- 1088 *Norwich*—Norfolk, Suffolk, and a small part of Cambridge.
- 1088 *Bath and Wells*—Somersetshire.
- 1109 *Ely*—Cambridgeshire.
- 1133 *Carlisle*—Great part of Cumberland, and Westmoreland.
- 1538 *Chester*—Cheshire, Lancashire, Richmondshire (which is part of Yorkshire), with a small part of Cumberland and Westmoreland.

1538 *Peterborough*—Northampton and Rutland.

1538 *Gloucester*—Gloucestershire.

1538 *Oxford*—Oxfordshire.

1538 *Bristol*—City of Bristol, part of Gloucestershire, and county of Dorset.

Several changes have taken place in the number and situation of the bishoprics since Christianity was first established in this country; but these would be too tedious to enter into.

The following statement contains the sum at which each see is charged in the king's books, with their estimated value in 1790†.

	Charged.			Value.
	£.	s.	d.	£
Canterbury	2682	12	2	8000
York	1610	0	0	7000
London	2000	0	0	6200
Durham	1821	1	3	8700
Winchester	3124	12	8	7400
Ely	2134	18	6	4000
Salisbury	1385	5	0	3500
Worcester	929	13	3	3400
Lincoln	894	18	1	3200
Norwich	834	11	7	3000
Hereford	668	11	0	3000
Litchfield and Coventry	559	19	3	2800
Oxford	381	11	3	2800
Carlisle	531	4	9	2800
Exeter	500	0	0	2700
Chester	420	1	8	2700
Chichester	677	1	3	2600
Rochester	358	4	0	2400
Bath and Wells	533	1	3	2200
Gloucester	315	7	3	2000
Peterborough	414	17	8	1700
Bristol	294	11	0	1500

The dean and chapter of prebendaries assist the bishop in ecclesiastical affairs. The latter are so styled from *pars præbenda*, or portion of land, or income, allotted them; and with the dean, form a body, college, or corporation; and they have several privileges superior to the common or minor canons. At the Reformation their salaries were mostly converted into money; but those of Durham preferred the ancient portions of land, which having prodigiously increased in value, they are now styled golden prebends. The others have generally large incomes, some of them exceeding in value those of the bishoprics; for which reason the revenues of a rich deanery, or other living, are often annexed to a poor bishopric. It is difficult, per-

* London was constituted an archbishopric, and the metropolitan see of all England, by Lucius, the first Christian king of Britain, 135; which dignity was removed to Canterbury by St. Augustine, or St. Austin, and confirmed by Pope Gregory, 596.

† The intelligent reader will be aware that, owing to a variety of causes, the above calculations fall greatly short of the real amount at present, which it would be very difficult precisely to ascertain. It is supposed, by persons of good information, that an addition of one-fourth, in the general, on the above statements, would be no exaggeration: this, however, is but a precarious mode of judging, as from different circumstances some of them have become more lucrative than others.

haps, to assign the utility of these dignitaries in the church, further than to add to the pomp of worship, or to make provision for clergymen of eminence: but interest often prevails over merit in the appointment.

The next order is that of the archdeacons, amounting in all to about 60; their office is to inspect the moveables of the churches, to reform slight abuses, and to induct into benefices. Archpriests, who, on the continent, share the labours of the archdeacon, being superintendants over a few parishes, were in England also styled rural deans, but are now unknown. The power of the archpriest almost corresponded with the Scottish presbytery, while the provincial synods are similar to bishoprics.

The deacon's office is now restricted to baptism, to reading in the church, and assisting the priest in the communion, by handing the cup only. Deacon's orders cannot be canonically received before the age of twenty-three years; those of a priest before the age of twenty-four years; and a bishop must be thirty.

The benefices of the clergy are now freehold; but in many places their tythes are impropriated in favour of the laity, in which case the priest is termed a vicar, implying that they were *vicarii*, or deputies of the rector; but if the tythes be entire, the priest is styled rector.

The economy of the church of England has been justly accused for the inequality of its livings; some of them extending from £300 to £1400 a year; while others are too small to maintain a clergyman, especially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency: but this seems not easy to be remedied, unless the dignified clergy would adopt and support the reforming scheme. Parliament, as well as private persons, has done much towards the augmentation of poor livings; and at present, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a most flourishing situation, because the value of their tythes increases with the improvement of lands, which has of late been amazing in England.

The curate is a clergyman appointed to officiate for another, and is so named from his having the care of souls; hence the French rather apply the term to the rector. The churchwardens superintend the repairs and decorations of the church, and the requisites for divine service, and collect the alms of the parishioners; they are annually elected at Easter, as are the overseers, who have the care of the parochial poor. The sacristain, corruptly called sexton, originally had the care of the furniture and plate of the church; but, by a great corruption, the appellation is now applied to the grave-digger, while it belongs to the parish-clerk.

Ecclesiastical courts still retain considerable

power. The Convocation, consisting of the archbishops and bishops, with a lower house of 150 members, only meets for the sake of form; they have not been allowed to deliberate since the reign of Queen Anne. Next in dignity is the Court of Delegates, acting by a special commission under the great seal; and to whom an appeal lies from the highest metropolitan court. The Court of Arches is so styled because it was held in the arches of the church of St. Mary-le-Bowe, London; but it is now convened in the great hall, Doctors Commons: only doctors of the civil law are allowed to plead. It is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury; and all appeals, in church-matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The processes run in the name of the judge, who is called Dean of the Arches. The Court of Audience is always presided by the archbishop himself, who decides any doubts concerning the admission to benefices, and dispensation of the bans of matrimony. The next court is that of Prerogative, which judges of estates fallen by will, or intestate: the prerogative-office is likewise in Doctors Commons. The Court of Peculiars refers to several peculiar parishes, exempt from the jurisdiction of the bishops, but here amenable: the judges are sole, and without jury. Every bishop has also a court of his own, called the Consistory Court; and every archdeacon has likewise his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

Some peculiar privileges are enjoyed by the clergy. Their goods are free from tolls in fairs and markets; they are exempt from compulsion to any office, civil or military; they are only amerced according to their temporal estate; nor are they assessed for a robbery committed in the hundred, or for watching, warding, highways, &c. &c.

The leading doctrines of the church of England are contained in the Thirty-nine Articles, about the true meaning of which great diversity of opinion has prevailed; some contending that they favour the Calvinistic doctrines of election, &c. while others as strenuously assert, that they are clearly the tenets advanced by Arminius. Which of these opinions is correct, it is hard to determine; but it is pretty evident, that the majority of the clergy of our day are of the latter persuasion: though it requires great discrimination to discover, from the pulpit, of what tenets our divines are; as it is now considered more essential to assume elegance of style, and correctness of manner, than the close, clear, and heart-searching eloquence of several of our reformers. It never can be too much lamented, that while the ministers of the different sects among us are strenuously preaching the essential doctrines of the gospel, too many of the orthodox clergy confine

confine themselves to loose generalities upon the moral duties of life, without fully declaring the whole counsel of God. To this, and to this alone, is to be attributed the growth of sectarianism; and it can hardly be expected that it will be allayed, unless the method recommended by a wise counsellor to George II. was adopted, who said, that this could only be effected by the regular clergy's *out-preaching, out-praying, and out-living* all the rest.

The church of England is, beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles; and no religious sect is prevented from worshipping God in that manner which their consciences approve. Some severe laws were, indeed, lately in force against those Protestant Dissenters who did not assent to the doctrinal articles of the church of England, but these laws were not executed; and, in 1779, religious liberty received a considerable augmentation, by an act which was then passed for granting a legal toleration to Dissenting ministers and schoolmasters, without their subscribing to any of the articles of the church of England.

The wisdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church is conspicuous, in discouraging all religious persecution and intolercancy; and the British government, to its honour, has, during the present reign, observed a tenderness in matters that can affect either conscience or religious liberty.

Presbyterians, Independents, &c.—The prepossession which the clergy had towards popery in the reign of Henry VIII. and even so late as that of Elizabeth, occasioned the interposition of the civil power for a farther reformation, and thence arose the *Puritans*, so called from their maintaining a singular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and some of them good patriots. Their descendants are the modern Presbyterians, who retain the same character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological sentiments have undergone a considerable change. Their doctrine was originally derived from the Geneva plan, instituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of episcopacy, by vesting the government of the church in a parity of presbyters. The clerical aristocracy of the Presbyterians was obtruded with great haughtiness upon the English nation, during the civil war in the last century, and was rendered the more odious because it admitted no toleration: hence the English found that they had only exchanged one yoke for another, as ten presbyters amounted to one bishop, and superadded the petulance and moroseness of individual inquisitors. Milton, and other friends of freedom, soon began to satirise the whole sect, and to fly for refuge to the Independents, whose benevolence or address granted universal toleration. To this body Cromwell lent his powerful aid; and,

after annihilating the Presbyterian power in England, he in a great measure subverted that of Scotland. The intolerant spirit of the Presbyterians originated with their apostle Calvin, whose cruelty to Servetus was balanced by surprising talents in clerical polity; it rendered their power singularly adverse to letters and taste; and no man of science who has studied the literary history of this country would wish for the revival of such domination. But the modern English Presbyterians, in their ideas of church-government, differ very little from the Independents, or Congregationalists; who are so called from holding the independency of congregational churches, without any respect to doctrine; and, in this sense, almost all the Dissenters in England are now become Independents. Many of their ministers have greatly distinguished themselves by their learning and abilities; and some of their writings are held in high estimation by all parties: the same may be said of some of the Independent and Baptist ministers. As the particular tenets of these sects have been frequently mis-stated, the following are the leading articles of their faith, as published in the Evangelical Magazine for November 1809.

They assert, "That mankind, though created in the moral image of God, are universally depraved, in consequence of the fall of Adam, whose sin, as their federal head, involved the corruption of all his posterity; which corruption, they believe, is universal, extending over all the powers of the soul, and total, *i. e.* the human heart is, by nature, totally destitute of love to God, or man as his creature, and consequently of all true virtue; and yet capable of adding iniquity to iniquity.—Modern Calvinists think this representation is established by experience, by observation, by history, and by scripture testimony.

"That this fallen depraved condition of mankind can be counteracted only by the interposition of sovereign grace in Christ Jesus. They view his death as a most perfect sacrifice and satisfaction for sin,—of infinite value, and abundantly sufficient to expiate the sins of the whole world. That on this ground the gospel is to be preached to all mankind indiscriminately; that it is the indispensable duty of all who hear this gospel to believe it, to repent of sin, renounce it for ever, and devote themselves entirely to the Redeemer as his faithful subjects; yet they also believe that it was the will of God that Christ, by the blood of his Cross, should efficaciously redeem all those, and those only, who were from eternity elected to salvation, and given to him by the Father. They maintain that God, who, from all eternity, foreknew all the impiety and obduracy of men, still determined that his grace should not be frustrated. In forming, therefore, the great plan of salvation, the Father, from eternity, chose in Christ an innumerable multitude

multitude of the fallen race of Adam unto holiness and eternal life—of his free grace and love, without the least foresight of faith, good works, or any condition to be performed by the creature. They do not consider predestination, or election, as affecting the agency or accountableness of creatures, or as being to them any rule of conduct. On the contrary, they suppose them to act as freely, and to be as much the proper subject of calls, warnings, exhortations, promises, and threatenings, as if no decree existed. The connection in which the doctrine is generally introduced by their preachers and writers is, to shew the source of salvation to be of mere grace—to account for one sinner's believing and being saved rather than another—to shew the certain success of Christ's undertaking, and as a powerful motive to personal holiness, as well as a source of comfort to the consistent Christian.

"They maintain, that all whom God hath predestinated unto life, he is pleased, in his appointed time, effectually to call by his word and Spirit, out of a state of sin and death, into that of grace and salvation by Jesus Christ. In the successive periods of time, the Holy Spirit rationally convinces them of the amiable glory of God, the infinite vileness of sin, and the equitable fitness of its eternal punishment. He induces them, by the most effectual motives, to accept the Lord Jesus Christ as their King and Saviour; and to live a life of dependence on his grace, and sincere dedication to his holy service.

"They admit, that the Holy Spirit, as calling men by the ministry of the gospel, may be resisted; and that when this is the case, the fault is not in the gospel, nor in Christ offered by the gospel, nor in God calling by the gospel, but in themselves: they contend, however, that where men obey the divine call, and are converted, it is not to be ascribed to themselves, as though by their own free-will they made themselves to differ, but entirely to him who quickens them when dead in trespasses and sins.

"Finally, they maintain, that those whom God has effectually called and sanctified by his Spirit, shall never finally fall from a state of grace: they admit that believers may fall partially, and would fall totally and finally, but for the mercy and faithfulness of God; and they also maintain, that he who bestows the grace of perseverance, bestows it by the means of grace, by exhortations, threatenings, and promises; but that none of these imply the possibility of a believer's falling from a state of justification."

Baptists.—The Baptists do not believe that infants are proper subjects of baptism; and in the baptism of adults they practise immersion into water. They are divided into two classes, which are

styled General Baptists, and Particular Baptists. The General Baptists are Arminians, and the Particular Baptists are Calvinists.

Some of the leading principles of the Regular or Particular Baptists are,—The imputation of Adam's sin to his posterity; the inability of man to recover himself; effectual calling by sovereign grace; justification by the imputed righteousness of Christ; immersion for baptism, and that on profession of faith and repentance; congregational churches and their independency, and reception into them upon evidence of sound conversion.

Quakers.—We shall next speak of the people called Quakers. This denomination of Christians arose about the year 1648. They were first collected into religious societies by their highly respected elder, George Fox.

Their doctrinal tenets may be summarily expressed as follows:—In common with other Christians, they believe in one eternal God, and in Jesus Christ the Messiah and Mediator of the new covenant. To Christ alone, in whose divinity they believe, they give the title of the *Word of God*, and not to the Scriptures; yet they profess a high esteem for these sacred writings, in subordination to the Spirit who indited them, and believe that they are able, through faith, to make wise to salvation. They reverence the excellent precepts of scripture, and believe them practicable and binding on every Christian; and that in the life to come, every man will be rewarded according to his works. In order to enable mankind to put in practice these precepts, they believe that every man coming into the world is endued with a measure of the light, grace, or good spirit of Christ, by which he is enabled to distinguish good from evil, and correct the disorderly passions and corrupt propensities of his nature, which mere reason is altogether insufficient to overcome: that this divine grace is, to those who sincerely seek it, an all-sufficient and present help in time of need; and that by it the snares of the enemy are detected, his allurements avoided, and deliverance experienced, through faith in its effectual operation, and the soul translated out of the kingdom of darkness into the marvellous light and kingdom of the Son of God. Thus persuaded, they think this divine influence especially necessary to the performance of the highest act of which the human mind is capable, the worship of God in spirit and in truth; and therefore consider as obstructions to pure worship, all forms which divert the mind from the secret influence of this unction of the Holy One. Though true worship is not confined to time or place, they believe it is incumbent on churches to meet often together, but dare not depend for acceptance on a formal repetition of the words and experiences of others. They think it is their duty to wait in silence,

ience, to have a true sight of their condition bestowed on them; and believe even a single sigh, arising from a sense of their infirmities and need of divine help, to be more acceptable to God, than any performances which originate in the will of man.

They believe the renewed assistance of the light and power of Christ, which is not at our command, nor attainable by study, but the free gift of God, to be indispensably necessary to all true ministry. Hence arises their testimony against preaching for hire, and conscientious refusal to support such ministry by tythes or other means. As they dare not encourage any ministry but such as they believe to spring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, so neither dare they attempt to restrain this influence to persons of any condition in life, or to the male sex, but allow such of the female sex as appear to be qualified, to exercise their gifts for the general edification of the church.

They hold, that as there is one Lord and one faith, so his baptism is one in nature and operation, and that nothing short of it can make us living members of his mystical body; and that baptism with water belonged to an inferior and decreasing dispensation. With respect to the Lord's Supper, they believe that communication between Christ and his church is not maintained by that nor any other external ordinance, but only by a real participation of his divine nature, through faith: that this is the supper alluded to, Rev. iii. 20; and that where the substance is attained, it is unnecessary to attend to the shadow.

Believing that the grace of God is alone sufficient for salvation, they neither can admit that it is conferred on a few only, while others are left without it; nor, thus asserting its universality, can they limit its operation to a partial cleansing of the soul from sin, even in this life. On the contrary, they believe that God doth vouchsafe to assist the obedient to submit to the guidance of his pure Spirit, through whose assistance they are enabled to bring forth fruits unto holiness, and to stand *perfect* in their present rank.

As to oaths, they abide literally by Christ's positive injunction, "Swear not at all." They believe that "wars and fightings" are, in their origin and effects, utterly repugnant to the gospel, which still breathes peace and good-will to men. They also are firmly persuaded, that if the benevolence of the gospel were generally prevalent in the minds of men, it would effectually prevent them from oppressing, much more from enslaving their brethren, of whatever complexion; and would even influence their treatment of the brute creation, which would no longer groan the victims of their avarice, or of their false ideas of pleasure. They profess that their principles, which inculcate sub-

mission to the laws in all cases wherein conscience is not violated, are a security to the salutary purposes of government. But they hold, that the civil magistrate has no right to interfere in matters of religion; and think persecution in any degree unwarrantable. They reject the use of those names of the months and days, which having been given in honour of the heroes or gods of the heathens, originated in their flattery or superstition; and the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen also from motives of adulation. Compliments, superfluity of apparel or furniture, outward shews of rejoicing or mourning, and observations of days and times, they deem incompatible with the simplicity and sincerity of a Christian life; and they condemn public diversions, gaming, and other vain amusements of the world. They require no formal subscription to any articles, either as the condition of membership, or to qualify for the service of the church.

This society has a discipline established among them, the purposes of which are the relief of the poor—the maintenance of good order—the support of the testimonies which they believe it is their duty to bear to the world—and the help and recovery of such as are overtaken in faults. It is their decided judgment that it is contrary to the gospel to sue each other at law. They enjoin all to end their differences by speedy and impartial arbitration, according to rules laid down. If any refuse to adopt this mode, or, having adopted it, to submit to the award, it is the rule of the society that such be disowned.

Methodists.—The Methodist denomination of Christians arose in England in 1729, under the late celebrated Rev. John Wesley, M. A. Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. The appellation of Methodist was first given to him, and a number of other pious young men in the university, from the regular and methodical manner in which they performed their devotions, and attended their studies, which caused a fellow of Merton College to exclaim—"A new race of Methodists has sprung up." This name, being quaint and new, took immediately, and they were soon known by it all over the university and city of Oxford. About 1735 the celebrated Mr. George Whitefield joined them. The same year Mr. Wesley first preached *extempore* at Allhallows church, London Wall; he went to hear another preacher, who not coming, the churchwardens requested him to preach, with which he complied, though he had no notes; this practice he afterwards continued till his death, which is universally followed by all his preachers, and is now adopted by several ministers of the establishment. In 1739, being denied the use of the churches, on account of their great plainness of speech, Messrs.

Wesley and Whitefield stood up in the open air, and declared to thousands, in London, Bristol, and other places, "salvation by faith, and the remission of sins." For a considerable time they suffered persecution from riotous mobs, and other causes; but peace being at length restored, this sect increased greatly, and still continues to increase to the present day.

In 1740 a difference of opinion arose between Messrs. Wesley and Whitefield, respecting the Calvinistic doctrine of predestination; the former having published a sermon expressly against it, which was answered by the latter (who was then in America) in the following year, who avowed his belief in the doctrines of unconditional election, irresistible grace, and final perseverance. As the parties remained firm in their several opinions, a separation took place between them, so far as to have different places of worship, and to form different societies; which gave rise to the two descriptions of this denomination, who are now distinguished by the names of the Wesleyan and Calvinistic Methodists: the former are a very considerable body of Christians. Mr. Wesley being excluded the pulpits of the church, after vainly endeavouring to stimulate the regular clergy to join him in his efforts to spread vital godliness throughout the land, established societies in every part of the United Kingdom, either by his own personal exertions, or those of a numerous body of lay-preachers, whom he called in to his assistance, who submitted themselves to his authority and direction, and whom he employed on an itinerant plan, frequently changing their situation. After a very long and useful life, spent in the most strenuous endeavours to do good, and rendered instrumental in the reformation of thousands in the middling and lower classes of society, he died, greatly lamented, in 1791. His followers represent themselves to be "a company of men, having the form, and seeking the power of godliness, united in order to pray together, to receive the word of exhortation, and to watch over one another in love, that they may help each other to work out their own salvation." Each society is divided into classes of twelve or more persons, one of whom is styled the *Leader*, whose business it is to see each person in his class once a week, in order to enquire how their souls prosper, to advise, reprove, comfort, or exhort, as occasion may require; and to receive contributions for relief of the church and poor. In order to admission into their societies, they require only one condition, viz. "a desire to flee from the wrath to come, i.e. a desire to be saved from their sins." It is expected of all who continue in their societies, that they should evidence their desire of salvation, by doing no harm, by avoiding all manner of evil, by doing all manner of good, as

they have ability and opportunity, especially to the household of faith; employing them preferably to others; buying of one another, except they can be served better elsewhere; and helping each in business; and also by attending upon all the ordinances of God, such as public worship, the supper of the Lord, family and private prayer, searching the scriptures, and fasting or abstinence.

During the life of Mr. Wesley, he annually held a conference with a number of his preachers, either in London, Bristol, Leeds, or Manchester, at which he always presided. On his demise, the government of this connection devolved upon this assembly, who, under the title of "The Conference of the people called Methodists, held by the preachers late in connexion with the Rev. John Wesley, deceased," transact the temporal and spiritual affairs of this body. During their sittings they are presided by one of the most aged and respectable of their brethren; and they annually publish minutes of their proceedings, together with regular statements of the numbers in their societies, and other matters. The numbers, as returned to the 66th annual conference, held at Manchester, in 1809, were,

In England	130,631
Scotland	1,455
Ireland	25,835

Total 157,921

The number of travelling or itinerant preachers was upwards of 500.

Each distinct society, or church, is under the temporal jurisdiction of stewards, who receive and disburse the money subscribed for the service of the church and other occasions. A number of these societies form a circuit, which is under the superintendence of a preacher of ten years standing and upwards, together with so many helpers as the extension of the circuit may require. Six or more of these circuits compose what is called a district, which is under the annual inspection of a chairman, who is generally the oldest minister, and whose province it is to bring an annual report of his district to the general conference. The number of districts in 1809 was 36, and the circuits 257.

A leading feature of this denomination is itineracy, or the frequent exchanging of their preachers from one place to another; there being a standing order among them, not to suffer any minister to remain longer than two years in any circuit, except in particular cases; and they cannot be stationed on the circuit again, till eight years have elapsed. Of late years this sect has greatly increased in all parts, but particularly in Wales; and missionaries have been sent to America and the West India Islands, where it has obtained as favourable a reception as in these islands.

As their doctrine, like that of most others, has been frequently misrepresented, the following is a sketch of their leading tenets. They believe and teach the doctrine of the Trinity in Unity, as explained by the Thirty-nine Articles: that all men, by nature, are sinful, guilty, and helpless, and without the grace of Christ can do nothing that is good: that the Son of God became a son of man, and died as an atonement for the sins of all mankind, having, by the grace of God, tasted death for every man; and that he is able to save from all sin in this life, all that come unto him by faith: that man must be inspired by the spirit of God, in order that he may be enlightened, quickened, comforted, purified, and made meet for heaven: that it is through the exercise of repentance and faith a sinner comes to a saving experimental knowledge of God; and that Christ is exalted at the Father's right hand, to give repentance and remission of sins to all who call upon him: that a believer should grow in grace, glorify God in that station of life in which the Providence of God has placed him, and look to be filled with all his fullness: that a believer need never fall from grace; but that he assuredly will, if he neglects to watch and pray, fall into sin, and thereby lose the favour and image of God: that a believer should constantly live in the exercise of faith and prayer: that all the means of grace are intended to feed these heavenly graces in their hearts, as well as to be instructed in turning sinners from the error of their ways: that the souls of the faithful are present with the Lord after death; and that Christ will come to judge the world in righteousness: that there will be a resurrection of the dead, both just and unjust: that the righteous shall inherit eternal life, and the wicked be doomed to eternal misery.

A great number of the followers of this denomination are still acknowledged as members of the establishment, by partaking of her communion &c. while others may be justly termed Dissenters, in consequence of having their own ordinances. Within the last few years this people have erected several elegant places of worship, in and about the metropolis. The Calvinistic Methodists, or the followers of Mr. Whitefield, and Selina Countess of Huntingdon, are, if added together, also a numerous body. Their church discipline and doctrines are somewhat similar to that of the Independents, whose religious principles we have already mentioned. — Mr. Whitefield was found dead on his knees, supposed while at prayer, on Sunday morning, September 30, 1770, at Charlestown, in America.

The *Swedenborgians* are so called from the Baron Swedenborg, a Swedish nobleman, who for some time, at the close of his life, resided in England. He was a man of profound erudition; and after

having published two folio volumes in Latin, upon the art of exploring mines, he was seized with a violent fever, and with great difficulty recovered. In his disordered imagination he fancied he maintained an intercourse with the spiritual world, and received peculiar communications from the Deity. In this state, he published twenty or more large quarto volumes, containing curious metaphysical argumentation, interspersed with visions elegantly described. The principal doctrines he inculcates are, that there is but one person of the Deity, viz. the Lord Jesus Christ; and that the day of judgment is already past. Abstracted from some vague and chimerical opinions, his tenets are laudable; as they tend to recommend practical religion, which should be enjoined by professors of every denomination.

Roman Catholics.—There are many families in England who still profess the Roman Catholic religion, and its exercise is under very mild and gentle restrictions. Though the penal laws against Papists in England appear at first to be severe, yet they are either not executed, or with so much lenity, that the Roman Catholic feels himself under few hardships. Various evasions are found out for the double taxes upon their landed property; and as they are subject to none of the expences and troubles (unless voluntarily) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the English Papists are in general in good circumstances as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws against them have also lately been repealed, much to the satisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raised against the measure by ignorance and bigotry. A great outcry has been made within the last few years about Catholic emancipation; some of our greatest legislators asserting that this ought now to be carried into execution, as nothing is to be feared from the pope, whose spiritual and temporal authority is now nearly annihilated, and to whom the Roman Catholics themselves assert they owe no subjection. However plausible this may appear, yet it is greatly to be doubted: no public recantation of their errors and cruelties has taken place; and when it is considered, that it always was a leading feature in their creeds to hold no faith with heretics, till such sentiments are abjured, it would hardly be safe to trust them. Every year, the claims of a few, who affect to labour under hardships, are brought before parliament by their political partisans, but hitherto without effect. Scarcely any English Papists, excepting those who were bred or had served abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745; and though those at home were most carefully observed, few, or none of them, were found guilty of disloyal practices.

Moravians.

Moravians.—The Moravians are a respectable body of Christians. Their principal settlements are at Fulneck, near Leeds, in Yorkshire; and Ockbraak, near Derby. The former being the most considerable, the following short description of it may not be deemed intrusive. It is pleasantly situated on the slope of a rising ground, and consists principally of two long and well paved streets, having a neat chapel and burial-ground. The buildings are simple, but neat. On one side are the habitations for single men, and on the other for single women. The men are chiefly employed in the various branches of the clothing trade, and the manufacture of spinning-wheels; while the women are employed in spinning and embroidery. About 400 persons reside in this place; but its population is said to decline considerably; for many of those, who, for the sake of novelty, at first joined the settlers, have withdrawn themselves; and the separation of the sexes, according to the principles of their founder, together with their peculiar management of trade, does not encourage or contribute either to the increase of population or manufacture. Besides these regular settlements, formed by such only as are members of the brethren's church, and live together in good order and harmony, there are, in different parts, congregations of the brethren, who have their own church and minister, and hold the same principles and doctrinal tenets, church rites and ceremonies, as the former; though their local situation does not admit of such particular regulations as are peculiar to the regular settlements.

They style themselves '*The United Brethren of the Protestant Episcopal Church.*' They are called Moravians, because the first settlers in the English dominions were chiefly emigrants from Moravia. These were the remnant and genuine descendants of the church of the ancient United Brethren, established in Bohemia and Moravia as early as the year 1456. In the beginning of the last century they left their native country to avoid persecution, enjoy liberty of conscience, and the true exercise of the religion of their forefathers. They were received in Saxony, and other Protestant dominions, and encouraged to settle among them; being joined by many serious people, particularly Count Zinzendorf, who was one of the greatest patronizers of this people. He allowed them a portion of land, upon which they erected the settlements of Hernhuth, from whence they were frequently called Hernhuthers. The Count visited England, and various other parts of Europe and America, into which place he first introduced their sentiments with great success. They adhere to the Augustan Confession of Faith, which was drawn up by Protestant divines at the time of the Reformation in Germany, in the year 1530, and presented at the diet of the

empire at Augsburg; and which, at that time, contained the doctrinal system of all the established Protestant churches. They retain the discipline of their ancient church, and make use of Episcopal ordination, which has been handed down to them in a direct line of succession for more than 300 years.

They profess to live in strict obedience to the ordinances of Christ, such as the observation of the sabbath, infant baptism, and the Lord's supper; and in addition to these, they practise the foot-washing, the kiss of love, and the use of the lot. Regularity, industry, ingenuity, and economy, are characteristics of these people.

Universalists.—The denomination styled Universalists, though their schemes are various, may properly enough be divided into two classes; viz. those who embrace the scheme of Dr. Chauncey, exhibited in his book entitled *The Salvation of all Men*; and the disciples of Mr. Winchester and others.

A judicious summary of Dr. Chauncey's sentiments has been given as follows.

"That the scheme of revelation has the happiness of all mankind lying at the bottom, as its great and ultimate end; that it gradually tends to this end; and will not fail of its accomplishment, when fully completed. Some, in consequence of its operation, as conducted by the Son of God, will be disposed and enabled, in this present state, to make such improvements in virtue, the only rational preparatives for happiness, as that they shall enter upon the enjoyment of it in the next state. Others, who have proved incurable under the means which have been used with them in this state, instead of being happy in the next, will be awfully miserable; not to continue so finally, but that they may be convinced of their folly, and recovered to a virtuous frame of mind: and this will be the effect of the future torments upon many; the consequence whereof will be their salvation, they being thus fitted for it. And there may be yet other states, before the scheme of God may be perfected, and mankind universally cured of their moral disorders, and in this way qualified for, and finally instated in eternal happiness. But however many states some of the individuals of the human species may pass through, and of however long continuance they may be, the whole is intended to subserve the grand design of *universal happiness*, and will finally terminate in it; insomuch that the *Son of God* and *Saviour of Men* will not deliver up his trust into the hands of the *Father* who committed it to him, till he has discharged his obligations in virtue of it; having finally fixed all men in heaven, when God will be *All in All.*"

Besides the religious sects enumerated, there are a few others, who, though they call themselves Christians,

Christians, yet deny some of the essential doctrines of the church of England; among which may be enumerated the Arians, Socinians, Unitarians, &c. &c. To these might be added some others of recent formation, such as the followers of Johanna Southcote, &c. the tenets and actions of whom are equally absurd, and at variance with the true spirit of Christianity.

Jews.—The Jews are numerous in this kingdom. They have synagogues in London, Bristol, Liverpool, and most of our large towns. To several of the rites and ceremonies of the Mosaic law, they add traditional customs, and singular observances. With most other of his Majesty's subjects, they, of late years, have given evident proofs of their loyalty and attachment: and if the answer given by the elders of the Jews to Buonaparte, in 1807, be correct, they do not (as has been asserted) expect to be literally restored to the Holy Land, or the city of Jerusalem; but they now assert that the great Governor of the Universe can exalt them above all the nations in the earth without their returning thither; and flatter themselves that the period will speedily arrive, though they do not venture to fix the precise time.

The whole number of persons who profess the Jewish religion, in all parts of the world, is supposed to be about three millions, who, as their phrase is, are witnesses of the unity of God in all the nations of the earth.

As England has been famous for the variety of its religious sects, so it has also for its *Free-thinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different senses. It has sometimes denoted opposers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it has also been applied to those who have been far from disbelieving Christianity, and who have only opposed some of those doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceive to be no part of the original Christian system. As to those who are truly *Deists* or *Infidels*, there is abundant reason to believe that this class of men is much more numerous in some Popish countries than in England; for Christianity is so much obscured and disfigured by the superstitions of the Roman Church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced against it, when they see it in so disadvantageous a form; and this appears to be, in fact, very much the case in foreign parts.

Naval and Military Strength.—"The naval power of Great Britain," says Pinkerton, "constitutes so striking and important a feature in the national portrait, that it merits particular illustration. Even in the Saxon times we find considerable fleets mentioned of the small vessels then in use. One of the Northumbrian monarchs assembled a numerous fleet near Jarro, the monastery of

Beda, in an extensive haven of the time, now become a salt-marsh. About the year 882, we find that Alfred directed a powerful fleet against the Danish invaders; but it is to be regretted that the early writers have not been more particular with regard to the number and form of the vessels. The fleet of Edgar is also celebrated; but the author of the Saxon Chronicle assures us, that the armament of Ethelred II. in the year 1009, exceeded any which England had ever before beheld; and as William of Malmesbury computes that of Edgar at 400 vessels, this may probably have amounted to 500 of the small ships then known. But the devastations of the Danes and Normans occasioned such a decline in the naval power of England, that Richard I. was obliged to have recourse to foreign vessels for his crusade. In the reign of John we, for the first time, find commemorated a signal victory of the English and Flemings, over the French fleet of Philip Augustus, which was computed at 1700 ships, or rather boats. The English monarch John, insolent in prosperity, mean in adversity, in the pride of his triumph, was the first who ordered the *SALUTE* to be paid by foreign vessels to the national flag. The fleet of England thenceforth continued to be always respectable, and generally victorious. In the reign of Edward III. it had acquired such pre-eminence, that in his gold coin, the first struck in England, he appears in a ship, the symbol of commerce and maritime power. But the preponderance of the English armaments over those of France only became permanent and decisive, a little more than a century ago, after the battle of La Hogue. Spain had yielded the contest, since the destruction of her great armada; and Holland had been greatly reduced in the naval conflicts under Charles II. so that no other rival remained, and Great Britain maintains a fixed superiority over the ocean. In the mechanism of ships the French builders certainly excel; but in the soul of ships, spirited, alert, and skilful seamen, no country can pretend to vie with Great Britain."

The first double-decked ship built in England, was of 1000 tons burden, by order of Henry VII. in 1509; it was called the Great Harry, and cost £14,000: before this, 24 gun ships were the largest in our navy, and these had no port-holes, the guns being on the upper deck only: port-holes, with other improvements, were invented by a Frenchman, at Brest, in 1500.

The progress in number of vessels has been more rapid in this reign than at any former period, as will appear from the following comparative statement, which includes every military vessel, from the first rate to the frigate:

Under Elizabeth in 1588	28
James I. in 1612	38

AA

Under

Under Cromwell	in 1640	. . .	120
James II.	in 1686	. . .	173
William III.	in 1700	. . .	273
Anne	in 1710	. . .	284
George I.	in 1721	. . .	206
George II.	in 1734	. . .	208
	1746	. . .	276
	1755	. . .	241
George III.	in 1762	. . .	343
	1810	. . .	1140

The naval report to the 1st of January 1810, is as follows :

At Sea—Ships of the line	. . .	73
From 50 to 44 guns	. . .	12
Frigates	. . .	122
Sloops	. . .	119
Brigs	. . .	226
In port, and fitting	. . .	298
In ordinary, repairing, &c.	. . .	290

Total 1140

The number of seamen voted for the service of 1809 was 130,000, including marines; and the sum granted for their pay and support was £11,556,500. The magnificence of our navy may be more justly appreciated by the following remarks:—A first-rate man of war requires above 60,000 cubic feet of timber, and uses 180,000lb. weight of rough hemp in the cordage and sails for it. The ground on which the timber for a 74 gun ship would require to grow, would be 14 acres, or 1500 well grown trees of two loads each, which, at 14 feet asunder, will cover the above *quantum* of ground. Some few years ago, government were in the habit of contracting for the building of their ships after the rate of £1000 per gun, so that a 74 gun ship was built for £74,000; but, owing to the enormous increase in the value of timber, they are now much more expensive.

The British navy is commonly divided into three squadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are so termed from the differences of their colours. Each squadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red squadron has the principal command of the whole, and is styled Vice-Admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is also a vice and rear-admiral. But the supreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. Notwithstanding our favourable situation for a maritime power, it was not until the vast armament sent to subdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully sensible of its true interest and natural strength, which it has since so happily cultivated. We may safely affirm, that the British navy is able to cope with all the other fleets of Europe. The brilliant victories of Lords Howe, St.

Vincent, Duncan, and Nelson, and the surrender of the whole Dutch fleet lying in the Texel; the glorious battle of Trafalgar in 1805; and the capture of the whole Danish navy in 1807, have established the unrivalled superiority of Britain over all the maritime powers of Europe. In the course of the late war she has taken from her enemies, including the Dutch ships surrendered for the Stadtholder, 83 ships of the line, 111 frigates, 223 other ships of war, and 713 privateers, amounting in the whole to 1132 ships, exclusive of the vast numbers which have been captured since 1803.

The special superintendence of the navy is committed to the Board of Admiralty, and the recent conduct of maritime war has been crowned with distinguished success, as is evident from the instances above recounted; while the admirals mentioned must be allowed to rival any names in naval history, ancient or modern. Before the Revolution, the impressing of men was legal, even for the land service; and in more early times, many forms of requisition were usual. Amidst a wide diffusion of liberty, and that individual security, which is one of the most valuable blessings of our constitution, it has been found impossible to abandon the impressing of seamen. The army naturally supports itself; for war, by producing a stagnation of manufactures, raises a supply of soldiers: but the seamen must be trained and inured to their peculiar element and profession; and the service being absolutely indispensable, it becomes a measure of political necessity to enforce it, if not offered voluntarily. This unavoidable additional hardship upon a class of men subject to so many toils and deprivations, is deeply to be regretted, and every endeavour should in justice be exerted to render their situation as comfortable as possible. Indeed, the government seems aware of the necessity of affording them every encouragement. About ten years ago they received an increase of prize-money, by his Majesty resigning a part of his droits of admiralty in their favour; and in the month of July, 1808, an order was passed for increasing the shares of seamen still farther. By this regulation a captain has two eighths, and four eighths are divided amongst the petty officers and crew.

Military Force.—In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a distinct order for the profession of arms: in such no man should be a soldier but with a view to defend his country and its laws. The constitution of this country knows of no such state as that of a standing army, bred up to no other profession than that of arms; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had so much as a guard about their persons. It seems universally agreed by all historians,

historians, that Alfred first settled a national militia among us, and by his prudent discipline made the greatest part of his subjects soldiers; and besides this, every man was obliged, by the statute of Winchester, to provide himself with such arms as would be needed in case of invasion or revolt. But as the mode of keeping standing armies has of late prevailed all over Europe, it has for many years past been judged necessary, for the safety of the kingdom, the defence of the possessions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preservation of the balance of power throughout Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the crown, who are, however, disbanded every year, unless continued by parliament. In time of peace, the land forces, some few years ago, usually amounted to about 40,000 men; but, owing to the views and successes of Buonaparte, during the peace of 1802 the number was more considerable; and since the renewal of the war the army has engrossed a considerable share of the population. It is estimated in regulars at 41 regiments of cavalry, 144 of infantry, and 86 of militia, exclusive of artillery and engineers. The *effective* rank and file, including invalids, militia, and foreign corps, as well as the regular and fencible troops, was returned to the Secretary at War in 1804, as amounting to 252,841 men; of which 20,324 were regular cavalry, 133,267 regular infantry, 87,652 militia, and 26,000 of the army of reserve. There were, besides, 14,202 artillery; making together a grand total of 267,243 men. The volunteer corps in Great Britain and Ireland have been much reduced by the various military projects that have been brought forward, such as entering from county corps into the militia, &c. but the body of volunteers in England may yet be calculated at 100,000 effective men.

To govern this body of troops an annual act of parliament passes, "to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army, and their quarters." This also regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed among the several innkeepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom, and establishes a law martial for their government.

The general scheme of the militia is to discipline a certain number of the inhabitants of each county, officered by the lord lieutenant, the deputy lieutenant, and other principal landholders; under a commission from the crown. They are not compellable to be sent out of their county, except in case of war or actual rebellion, nor on any account to be sent out of the kingdom.

Though sea-officers and sailors are subject to a perpetual act of parliament, which answers the annual military act that is passed for the government of the army, yet neither of those bodies are exempted from legal jurisdiction in civil or criminal

cases, but in a few instances of no great moment. The soldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magistrate to enable him to preserve the peace against all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the soldiers on those occasions, is to take his directions from the magistrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified against all consequences, be they ever so fatal. Those civil magistrates who understand the principles of the constitution, are, however, extremely cautious in calling for the military on these occasions, or upon any commotion whatever; and, indeed, with good reason: for the frequent employment of the military power, in a free government, is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded against with too much caution.

The following is a table of the rank between his Majesty's land and sea officers, as settled by the king in council, 1747:

LAND.	SEA.
Field-Marshal	Admiral and Chief Commander
Generals of Horse or Foot	Admirals with flags at the main top
Lieutenant Generals	Vice-Admirals
Major Generals	Rear-Admirals
Brigadier Generals	Commodores
Colonels	Captains of Three Years Date
Lieutenant Colonels	Younger Captains
Majors	Masters
Captains	Lieutenants.

Revenue.—The king's ecclesiastical revenues consist in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and pensions, formerly arising from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing, due to the king from an abbey or monastery, and which he generally bestowed upon favourite servants; and his sending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, or to have a pension bestowed upon him till the bishop promoted him to a benefice. These corodies are due of common right, but now disused. 3. Extra-parochial tythes. 4. The first-fruits and tenths of benefices. But such has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that these four branches now afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue consists in, 1. The demesne lands of the crown, which at present are contracted within a narrow compass. 2. The hereditary excise; being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual sum issuing from the duty on wine-licences; being the residue of the same consideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of justice, &c. In lieu of all which, upwards of one million pounds per annum are now granted for the support of his civil list, besides extra-grants. These are usually called by the synonymous names of aids, subsidies, and supplies, and are granted by the Commons of Great

Great Britain in parliament assembled; who, when they have voted a supply to his Majesty, and settled the *quantum* of that supply, resolve themselves into what is called a Committee of Ways and Means, to consider of the means of raising the supply so voted. In this committee every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the Chancellor of the Exchequer) may propose such scheme of taxation as he thinks will be least detrimental to the public. The resolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the house) are in general esteemed to be final and conclusive. For, though the supply cannot be actually raised upon the subject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will scruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready cash, if the proposed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the House of Commons, though no law be yet passed to establish it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax, or the ancient subsidy raised upon a new assessment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual excise on malt, mum, cyder, and perry. 3. The income-tax, being 10 per cent. upon the income by which every family subsists, by whatever means it may be acquired. This is a most galling and oppressive measure, but it is only to last during war: its produce is enormous, and the tax is considered indispensable.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The customs, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandise exported or imported. 2. The excise duty, or inland imposition on a great variety of commodities. 3. The salt duty. 4. The post-office, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The stamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houses and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney-coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and pensions; and many inferior taxes too numerous to specify. Sums are raised by temporary taxes, as the exigencies of government require.

Of the permanent taxes, a great part is employed in discharging the interest of the national debt, which, at present is upwards of £500,000,000, and the interest about £20,000,000.

The national debt began in the reign of William III. and grew into what have been called the funds, or stocks, only synonymous terms for the public debt. The following is a statement of its gradual increase:

In 1697 it was	£5,000,000
1702 —	14,000,000
1713 —	50,000,000
1747 —	64,593,797
1755 —	75,077,264
1763 —	146,582,844
1786 —	266,725,097

In 1796 it was 360,000,000
1804 — 484,162,622

Since which period it has increased considerably; though upwards of £120,000,000 have been redeemed by the sinking fund. In 1808, the sum required by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, for the payment of the interest of this debt, and for the exigencies and expenditure of the year, was upwards of £70,000,000!!!

It is indisputably certain, that the present magnitude of our national debt, very far exceeds all calculations of national benefit, and is productive of the greatest inconveniences: for, 1. The enormous taxes that are raised upon the necessities of life, to pay the interest of this debt, are injurious both to trade and manufacture, by raising the price, as well of the artificer's subsistence, as of the raw materials, and of course, in a much greater proportion, the price of the material itself. 2. If part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom, annually, a considerable quantity of specie, for the interest; or else it is made an argument to grant them unreasonable privileges, in order to induce them to reside here. 3. If the whole be owing to subjects only, it is then charging the active and industrious subject, who pays his share of the taxes, to maintain the idle and indolent creditor who receives them. Lastly, and principally, it weakens the internal strength of a state, by anticipating those resources which should be reserved to defend it in case of necessity. The interest we now pay for our debts would be nearly sufficient to maintain any war that any national motives could require; and if our ancestors, in King William's time, had annually paid, so long as their exigencies lasted, even a less sum than we now annually raise upon their account, they would in time of war have borne no greater hardships than they have bequeathed to and settled upon their posterity in the time of peace, that might have been eased the instant the exigency was over.

No permanent provision had ever been made for the progressive and certain payment of this immense debt until 1786, when parliament had the wisdom and the firmness to pass an act for vesting unalienably in commissioners the sum of £1,000,000 annually; in which act every possible precaution was taken, that could be devised, for preventing the surplus from being diverted at any future time, and for carrying to the account of the commissioners, for the purposes of the act, the interest of such stock as should be purchased, and such temporary annuities as should fall in under the provisions of this act.

In the late reigns the produce of certain branches of the revenue, and a clear annuity of £120,000 in money, were settled on the king for life, for the support

support of his household, and the honour and dignity of the crown; these it was supposed would amount to £800,000, but, if they did not, parliament engaged to make up the deficiency: it is now increased to £1,000,000. The expences defrayed out of the civil list, are those that, in any shape, relate to civil government: as the expences of the household; all salaries to officers of state, to the judges, and every one of the king's servants; the appointments to foreign ambassadors; the maintenance of the queen and royal family; the king's private expences, or privy purse, and other numerous outgoings. These have sometimes so far exceeded the revenues provided for that purpose, that application has been made to parliament to discharge the debts due from it to individuals.

Orders of Knighthood, &c.—In the feudal times war was the occupation of every gentleman, and military orders or companies of knights were formed by sovereigns in many parts of Europe, either for defence against infidels, or as an honourable distinction to such as had performed any memorable action. One of the most noble of these orders is that of the *Garter*, established by Edward III. 1344. It consists of a sovereign, who is always the king of England, and twenty-six knights, many of whom have been sovereign princes; the poor knights are their pensioners, and are all gentlemen who have either been wounded in the service of their country, or reduced by misfortune to poverty. By some authors this order is said to have originated from the countess of Salisbury, who dropped her garter as she was dancing at a ball; the king found it, and carried it to the lady, saying, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, "Evil to him who evil thinks;" and instituted this order to her honour. But other writers contend that this is a mere popular story, and it is far more probable that it was established on account of the famous battle of Cressy, where, it is supposed, the king's garter was displayed as a signal to begin the engagement. St. George of Cappadocia is the tutelar saint of this order, as well as of England; it is therefore frequently called the Order of St. George. The dress of the knights is extremely rich: on public occasions they wear a mantle of blue velvet, thrown across the shoulders, with a high velvet cap, adorned with diamonds and feathers, according to the taste of the wearer; but their chief distinction, which they never lay aside, is a blue ribband crossing the body from the left shoulder: on this is fastened the picture of St. George, enamelled in gold, and ornamented with diamonds. Garter King at Arms is an officer who presides over the ceremonies of the installation of a knight, which is performed with great splendor in St. George's Chapel, in the presence of the king on the throne, who presents to the new-made

knight, an embroidered garter of blue velvet, embellished with the motto of the order, which is buckled on the leg of their new associate by the two senior knights; he is then reconducted to the sovereign, who, as he kneels before him, puts upon his neck a dark blue ribband, to which is suspended the insignia of George and the dragon; upon which he kisses his hand, and the ceremony concludes.

The order of the *Bath*, so called from the knights bathing at the time of their creation, is supposed to have been instituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of our monarchs, or on other solemn occasions. They wear a scarlet ribband hanging from the left shoulder with an enamelled medal, the badge of the order, a rose rising from the dexter side of a sceptre, and a thistle from a sinister, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in unum*, "Three joined in one." This order being discontinued, was revived by George I. May 8th, 1725; and, in the month following, 18 noblemen, and as many commoners of rank, were installed knights of the order with great ceremony, in Henry VII.'s Chapel, in Westminster Abbey. Their robes are splendid and shewy; and the number of knights is undeterminate, at the option of the sovereign.

Baronets can scarcely be said to belong to any order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field argent in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the Garter, were it not that the latter are peers or privy-counsellors; there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were instituted by James I. in 1615: their number was then 200, and each paid about £1000, on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulster in Ireland; but their number is now greatly increased, and particularly of late years, being upwards of 700.

A *Knight* is a term used almost in every nation in Europe, and, in general, signifies a soldier serving on horseback, a rank of no mean estimation in ancient times, and entitling the parties themselves to the title of *Sir*. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; such as those of *Bannerets*, *Batchelors*, and the *Carpet*; but they are now nearly disused.

It is rather difficult to account for the origin of the word *Esquire*, which formerly signified a person bearing the arms of a nobleman, or knight, and were called *armigeri*. This title denotes any person who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at present applied promiscuously to any person who can afford to live in the style of a gentleman, without trade; and even a tradesman,

tradesman, if he is a justice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, so late as the reign of Henry IV. was an order conferred by the king's putting about the party's neck a collar of SS, and giving him a pair of silver spurs. At present, serjeants at law, and other serjeants belonging to the king's household, justices of peace, doctors of divinity, law, and physic, take place of other esquires; and it is remarkable, that all the sons of dukes, marquisses, earls, viscounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than esquires, though they may be designated by noble titles. The appellation of *Gentleman*, though now bestowed so promiscuously, is the root of all English honours; for every nobleman is expected to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

Courts of Law, and Laws.—The *Court of Chancery*, which is the Court of Equity, is next in dignity to the High Court of Parliament, and is designed to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions, and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The Lord High Chancellor sits as sole judge, and, in his absence, the Master of the Rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, answers, and decrees; the witnesses being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the persons of those concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and, consequently, if a man refuses to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than send him to the prison of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be sent to prison, the Lord Chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he sees reason for it, grant a *habeas corpus* for his liberation.

The Clerk of the Crown likewise belongs to this court; he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the Lord Chancellor, as often as he sits for the dispatch of business. Through his hands pass all writs for summoning the parliament or choosing of members, commissions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The *King's Bench* is so called, either from the kings of England sometimes sitting there in person, or because all matters determinable by common law between the king and his subjects are here tried, except such affairs as properly belong to the Court of Exchequer. This court is, likewise, a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Here preside four judges, the first of whom is styled Lord Chief Justice of England, to express the great extent of his jurisdiction over the kingdom; for this court can grant prohibitions in any cause depending either in spiritual or temporal courts; and the House of

Peers does often direct the Lord Chief Justice to issue out his warrant for apprehending persons under suspicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called Justices, or Judges, of the King's Bench.

The *Court of Common Pleas* takes cognizance of all pleas debatable, and civil actions depending between subject and subject; and in it, besides all real actions, fines and recoveries are transacted, and prohibitions are likewise issued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The first judge of this court is styled Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, or Common Bench; beside whom there are likewise three other judges, or justices, of this court. None but serjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The *Court of Exchequer* was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law, and according to equity. In the proceeding according to law, the Lord Chief Barons of the Exchequer, and three other barons, preside as judges. They are styled Barons, because formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Besides these, there is a fifth, called Cursitor Baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in administering the oath to sheriffs and other officers, and also to several of the officers of the custom-house. But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the Lord Treasurer, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer preside, assisted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treasury, revenue, customs, and fines, are here tried and determined. Besides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer, the King's Remembrancer, who takes and states all accounts of the revenue, customs, excise, parliamentary aids, subsidies, &c. except the accounts of the sheriffs and their officers; the Lord Treasurer's Remembrancer, whose business it is to make out processes against sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

The twelve judges of the three preceding courts, stately, at the spring and fall of the year, make the circuit of the kingdom, in order to hold the assizes for each county, and to administer justice, as representatives of the king; for the regular dispensing of which, England is judicially divided into the six following circuits:

1. The *Northern**, comprehending the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, Durham, Yorkshire, and Lancashire.

2. The *Midland*, comprehending Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Lincolnshire, Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, and Northamptonshire.

* In the Lent, or Spring Assizes, the northern circuit extends only to York and Lancaster; the assizes at Durham, Appleby, Carlisle, and Newcastle, being held only in the autumn, which then gives this the distinguishing appellation of the long circuit.

3. The

3. The *Norfolk*, comprehending Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, Huntingdonshire, Cambridge-shire, Suffolk, and Norfolk.

4. The *Oxford*, comprehending Staffordshire, Shropshire, Worcestershire, Herefordshire, Monmouthshire, Gloucestershire, Berkshire, and Oxfordshire.

5. The *Home*, comprehending Hertfordshire, Essex, Kent, Sussex, and Surrey.

6. The *Western*, comprehending Wiltshire, Hampshire, Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall.

Middlesex is not comprehended in any circuit, being under its own particular jurisdiction; nor Cheshire, which being a county palatine, enjoys municipal laws and privileges.

A *High-Sheriff*, for putting the laws effectually in execution, is annually appointed for every county, (except Durham*, Middlesex, and Cornwall) by the king. His office is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of justice; to impanel juries; to bring causes and malefactors to trial; to see sentence, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the assize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. He is likewise to decide the elections of knights of the shire, of coroners, and verderers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return such as he shall determine to be duly elected. It is also part of his office to collect all public fines, distresses, amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king shall appoint, and to make such payments out of them as his Majesty shall think proper.

His office being judicial, he keeps a court, called the county court, which is held by the sheriff, or his under-sheriffs, to hear and determine all civil causes in the county, under forty shillings; this, however, is no court of record: but the court, formerly called the sheriff's tourn, was one, and the king's leet, through all the county; for in this court enquiry was made into all criminal offences against the common law, where by the statute law there was no restraint: this court, however, has been long since abolished. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and special commission, he is the first man in the county, and superior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *posse comitatus*, or power of the county. Under the sheriff are various officers; as the under-sheriffs, clerks, stewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called serjeants), constables, gaolers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the sheriff is the *Justice of Peace*, several of whom are commissioned for each county; and to them is entrusted the power of putting great part of the statute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treasons, felonies, riots, the preservation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to prison all who break or disturb the peace, and disquiet the king's subjects. In order to punish the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inquest of the county, is summoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to enquire into the cases of all delinquents, and to present them by bill, guilty of the indictment, or not guilty; the justices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next assizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-sessions for the county.

Each county contains two *Coroners*, who are to enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any person came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of their office is to enquire concerning shipwreck, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods. In his ministerial office, he is the sheriff's substitute.

A *Constable* is a very ancient and respectable officer of the peace. Every hundred has a high-constable, and every parish one or more constables, whose business it is to keep the peace in all cases of quarrels and riots: he can imprison offenders till they are brought before a justice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his district, every warrant that is directed to him from that magistrate, or a bench of justices.

The civil government of cities is a kind of small independent policy of itself; for every city has, by charter from the king, a jurisdiction within itself, to judge in all matters civil and criminal, with this restraint only, that all civil causes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Westminster; and all offences that are capital are committed to the judge of the assize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and constitutions. They are constituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgesses, who, together, make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor presides as judge. Some cities are counties, and choose their own sheriffs; and all of them have a power of making bye-laws for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the English government, by king, lords, and commons.

* The sheriff for the county of Durham is appointed by the bishop of that see; for Middlesex, by the corporation of the City of London; and for Cornwall, by the Prince of Wales.

The government of incorporated boroughs is nearly similar: in some there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; all which, during their mayoralty or magistracy, are justices of the peace within their liberties, and consequently esquires.

The Cinque Ports are five havens, formerly esteemed most important ones, that lie on the east part of England towards France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hastings, and Hythe, to which Winchelsea and Rye have been since added, with similar franchises in many respects. These cinque ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they should provide a certain number of ships, at their own charge, to serve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the soil, or manor, (who were formerly called barons) have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet, and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive justice. The business of courts-leet is chiefly to prevent and punish nuisances; and at courts-baron the conveyance and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their estate on descent or purchase.

Besides these, there are courts of conscience in many parts of England, for the relief of the poor, in the recovery of payment of small debts, not exceeding forty shillings. In short, there never was any constitution provided with so many fences as that of England is, for the security of personal liberty. Every man imprisoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge at Westminster-hall, called his *Habeas Corpus*. If that judge, after considering the cause of commitment, shall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of justice.

Among the peculiar usages of the country handed down to us from our Saxon ancestors, the most remarkable, perhaps, are the customs of *Gavel-kind* and *Borough English*, which still exist in Kent and some other counties: by the former of these all the sons inherit equally, and share the estate between them; and by the latter, the youngest son succeeds to the inheritance: it being presumed (say our old lawyers) that the elder sons have learnt their father's occupation, and thus are provided for.

The rights of individuals are so attentively guarded, that the subject may, without the least danger, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, where the king may be cast, and be

obliged to pay damages to his subject; but he must not attach his goods in the palace where he resides. The king cannot deprive the meanest individual of his liberty, unless he has, by some illegal act of which he is accused or suspected upon oath, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think the public safety makes it necessary that he should have the power of confining persons on such a suspicion of guilt; when the legislature has sometimes thought proper to pass a temporary suspension of the *Habeas Corpus* act. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he, nor the judges to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be first found guilty by twelve men, who must be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king or his ministers to misrepresent the case to the jury, they have their salaries for life, and not during the pleasure of their sovereign. Neither can the king take away or endanger the life of any subject, without trial, and the persons being first chargeable with a capital crime, as treason, murder, felony, or some other act injurious to society; nor can any subject be deprived of his liberty, for the highest crime, till some proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magistrate; and he has then a right to insist upon his being brought, the first opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be restored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man be charged with a capital offence, he must not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alleged to be committed, and not unless twelve of them agree to a bill of indictment against him. If they do this, he is to stand a second trial before twelve other men, whose opinion is definitive. By the 28th Edward III. it is enacted, that where either party is an alien born, the jury shall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial; a privilege indulged to strangers in no other country in the world, but which is as ancient with us as the time of king Etheldred*. In some cases, the man (who is always supposed innocent till there be a sufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of the indictment, in order to assist him to make his defence. He is also furnished with the pannel, or list of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and discover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced against him. He may in open court peremptorily object to 20 of the number†; and to as many more as he can

* Statuta de Monticolis Walliæ.

† The party may challenge thirty-five, in case of treason.

give reason for their not being admitted as his judges; till at last twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accused, or living near the place where the supposed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that *they shall well and truly try, and true deliverance make between the king and the prisoner, whom they shall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the prisoner prevents all possibility of bribery, or the influence of any superior power; by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are supposed to be men who knew the prisoner's course of life, and the credit of the evidence. These only are the judges from whose sentence the prisoner is to expect life or death; and upon their integrity and understanding, the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and, after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined, without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unani- mous in acquitting or condemning the prisoner. Every jurymen is therefore vested with a solemn and awful trust: if he without evidence submits his opinion to that of any other of the jury, or yields in complaisance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmost care; if he questions the veracity of the witnesses, who may be of an infamous character; or, after the most impartial hearing, has the least doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the person accused, he will wound his own conscience, and bring upon himself the complicated guilt of per- jury and murder. Thus the freedom of English- men consists in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them for declaring a man innocent whom he wishes to bring in guilty.

Trial by jury is so capital a privilege, and so great a security to the liberty of the subject, that it is much to be regretted that persons of educa- tion and property are often too ready to evade serving the office. By this means juries frequently consist of ignorant and illiterate persons, who neither have knowledge enough to understand their rights and the privileges of Englishmen, nor spirit enough to maintain them. Juries have, in- deed, always been considered as giving the most effectual check to tyranny: for, in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing against law, they are a security that he shall never make the laws, by a bad administration, the instruments of cruelty and oppression.

When a prisoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and, though the judges are supposed to be counsel for the prisoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cause, other counsel are allowed him: he may try the

validity and legality of the indictment, and may set it aside, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanted to clear up the cause of innocence, and to prevent the sufferer from sinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppression of the great. The racks and tortures that are made use of in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuse him- self, are here unknown, and none punished without conviction, but he who refuses to plead in his own defence.

The trial of malefactors in England is very diffe- rent from that of other nations. The following is a brief account of it:

The court being met, and the prisoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accused, and asks him whether he is *guilty*, or *not guilty*. If the prisoner answers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he answers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confessed the fact; for the law of Eng- land takes no notice of such confession; and unless the witnesses, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury must acquit him; for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the prisoner refuse to plead, that is, if he will not say in court whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*, he might, till lately, by the law of England, be pressed to death, with a load of iron upon his breast; but, at pre- sent, the same sentence is passed on him as in case of conviction.

When the witnesses have given in their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or his counsel, cross-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the substance of the evidence given against the prisoner, and bids them discharge their con- science; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman, for himself and the rest, declares the prisoner *guilty* or *not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt arise among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all with- draw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimously agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury should die during this their confinement, the pri- soner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court by an officer who waits without, and the prisoner is again set to the bar to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in some doubt- ful cases, when the verdict is brought in *special*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the prisoner be found guilty, he is then asked what reason he can give why sentence of death should not be passed upon him. There is now
c c properly

properly no benefit of clergy; it is changed to transportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction, the sentence of death after a summary account of the trial, is pronounced on the prisoner.

All the prisoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and discharged, and in some cases obtain a copy of their indictment from the court, to proceed at law against their prosecutors.

The law of England includes all capital crimes in the terms *high treason*, *petty treason*, and *felony*. The first consists in plotting, conspiring, or rising up in arms against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for some minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burnt; the head is then cut off, and the body quartered; after which the head is usually fixed on some conspicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loses her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treason, the criminal is only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the sentence passed upon all traitors is the same, yet, with respect to persons of quality, the punishment is generally altered to beheading; a scaffold is erected for that purpose, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is struck off with an axe*. The punishment for misprision of high treason, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is imprisonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits arising from his lands.

Petty treason is when a child kills his father, a wife her husband, a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress. This crime is punished by the offender being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged. Women guilty both of this crime and of high treason were sentenced to be burnt alive; but this law has been repealed within the last thirty years, and the punishment of burning abolished.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. These are all punished by hanging: only murderers† are to be executed soon after sentence is passed, and then delivered to the surgeons in order to be publicly dissected. Persons guilty of robbery, when there were some alleviating circumstances, used sometimes to be transported

for a term of years to his majesty's plantations; but since the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years; or they are sent to Botany Bay.

Other crimes punished by the laws are,

Manslaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a person without premeditated malice, but with a present intent to kill; as when two who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this case the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy, for the first time, and only burnt in the hand.

The punishments for various subordinate offences are regulated by the same scale of justice in mercy as those for the crimes which we have mentioned. They consist of imprisonment, whipping, and fine.

Constitution, Government, &c.—The constitution of England, the peculiar boast and glory of the country, and an object of admiration to other states, though attempted to be described by Montesquieu, has been little understood by foreigners; for it presents such an infinite number of practical ramifications, and is so intimately connected with the spirit and manners of the people, that a number of years would be required to feel and study its real effects; and even after the longest preparation, the best description must be but a portrait devoid of expression.

The ancient Greek and Roman writers, in describing such a constitution as that of England, seem to think, that, however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved this to be a mistake; for, by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the English constitution has existed for above 500 years. It must at the same time be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and some interruptions; but its principles are the same with those described by Tacitus, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern ancestors of the English nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the first invasion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were nearly the same as those mentioned by that historian. The people had a leader in the time of war: the conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to serve him, were distributed among them; and the whole was considered as the common property, which they were to unite in defending against all

* This is not to be considered as a different punishment, but as a remission of all the parts of the sentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

† Murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after sentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Friday, so that they obtain a respite till Monday.

invaders. Fresh adventurers coming over under separate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and those leaders at last assumed the titles of kings over the several districts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more respectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not increase their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

Civil matters were proposed in a general assembly of the chief officers and the people, till, by degrees, sheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that master-piece of judicial policy, the sub-division of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the sub-division of hundreds into tythings, names that still subsist in England; and overseers were chosen to direct them for the good of the whole. The sheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county; and to him, after the introduction of Christianity, was added the bishop. In process of time, as business multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but, by the earliest records, it appears that all civil matters were decided by twelve or sixteen men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the dispute lay; and here we have the original of English juries. It is certain that they were in use among the earliest Saxon colonies, their institution being ascribed by Bishop Nicholson to Woden himself, their great legislator and captain. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all those nations which adopted the feudal system, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had all of them a tribunal composed of twelve good men and true, equals, or peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual mention made of them so early as the laws of king Elthered, and that not as a new regulation.

It is not certain whether, before the introduction of Christianity, the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but it is known that there was no action so criminal as not to be compensated for by money. A mulct was imposed, in proportion to the guilt, even if it was murder of the king, upon the malefactor; and by paying it, he purchased his pardon. Those barbarous usages seem to have ceased soon after the Saxons were converted to Christianity; and cases of felony and murder were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Among the Saxons, royalty was not, strictly speaking, hereditary, though in fact it came to be rendered so through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preserving the regularity of government. Even estates and honours were not strictly hereditary, till they were made so by William the Norman.

The first princes of the Norman line afterwards

made great efforts to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon constitution; but the attempt was to no purpose. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints against the crown; and, after much war and bloodshed, the famous charter of English liberties, so well known by the name of *Magna Charta*, was forcibly obtained from king John, and confirmed by his son Henry III. who succeeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear that, till this reign, and after much blood had been spilt, the commons of England were represented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; so entirely had the barons engrossed to themselves the disposal of property. The precise year when the House of Commons was formed is not known; but we are certain there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we shall not enter into any disputes about their specific powers. We shall therefore proceed to describe the CONSTITUTION, as it exists at present.

In all states there is an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs; and which, by the singular constitution of these kingdoms, is here vested in the king, lord, and commons.

The supreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is vested by our constitution in a single person, *king or queen*; for it is indifferent to which sex the crown descends: the person entitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately entrusted with all the ensigns, rights, and prerogatives of sovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim, upon which the right of succession to the throne of these kingdoms depends, is, "that the crown, by common law and constitutional custom, is hereditary, and this in a manner peculiar to itself: but that the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed or limited by act of parliament: under which limitation, the crown still continues hereditary."

We have abstracted the following particulars from the work of a celebrated historian, that the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal succession, by its being transferred from the house of Tudor to that of Stuart. On the death of queen Elizabeth, without issue, it became necessary to recur to the other issue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen, whose eldest daughter Margaret having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the First, was the lineal descendant from that alliance. So that in his person, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centered all the claims of the different competitors from the Norman invasion downward; he being indisputably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is still more remarkable, in his person also centered the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had

had been suspended from the Norman invasion till his accession: for Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of king Edmund Ironside, was the person in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings (supposing it not abolished by the Conquest) resided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a descent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the restorer of the Saxon line. But, it must be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had sons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of that royal family king James I. was the direct and lineal descendant; and therefore united in his person every possible claim, by hereditary right, to the English as well Scottish throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of estates, or representative body of the nation, declared that the misconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant. In consequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next protestant heirs of the blood-royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of succession; with a temporary exception, or preference to the person of king William III.

On the impending failure of the protestant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the settlement of the crown to the protestant line of king James I. viz. to the princess Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being protestants; and she is the common stock from whom the heirs of the crown now descend.

The true principle upon which the Revolution proceeded, was entirely a new case in politics, which had never before happened in our history; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeasance of the right of succession, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houses of parliament; it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being. For in a full assembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the supposition of this vacancy, both houses came to this resolution: "that king James II. having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and, by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government: and that the throne is thereby

vacant." Thus ended at once, by this sudden and unexpected revolution, the old line of succession, which, from the Norman invasion, had lasted above six hundred years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert almost nine hundred.

Though in some points the revolution was not so perfect as might have been wished, yet from thence a new æra commenced; in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and understood, and the rights of the subject more explicitly guarded by legal provisions, than in any other period of the English history. In particular, it is worthy of observation, that the convention, in this their judgment, avoided with great wisdom the extremes into which the visionary theories of some zealous republicans would have led them. They held, that this misconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to subvert the constitution, and not to an actual subversion or total dissolution of the government. They therefore, very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a consequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to subsist, though the executive magistrate was gone; and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king. And thus the constitution was kept entire; which, upon every sound principle of government, must otherwise have fallen to pieces, had so principal and constituent a part as the royal authority been abolished, or even suspended.

Hence it may be seen that the title to the crown is at present hereditary, though not quite so absolutely so as formerly; and the common stock or ancestor, from whom the descent must be derived, is also different. Formerly the common stock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterwards, in James I.'s time, the two common stocks united, and so continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688; now it is the princess Sophia, in whom the inheritance was vested by the new king and parliament. Formerly the descent was absolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any restriction; but now, upon the new settlement, the inheritance is conditional, being limited to such heirs only of the body of the princess Sophia as are protestant members of the church of England, and are married to none but protestants.

In this medium consists the true constitutional notion of the right of succession to the imperial crown of these kingdoms. The extremes between which it proceeds have been thought each of them to be destructive of those ends for which societies were formed and are maintained. Where the magistrate, upon every succession, is elected by the people

people, and may, by the express provision of the laws, be deposed (if not punished) by his subjects, this may sound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever found extremely difficult and dangerous. On the other hand, indefeasible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited obedience, is surely, of all constitutions, the most thoroughly slavish. But when such an hereditary right as our laws have created and vested in the royal stock, is closely interwoven with those liberties which are equally the inheritance of the subject, this union will form a constitution, in theory the most beautiful of any, in practice the most approved, and, in all probability, in duration the most permanent. This is our constitution, and which it is the duty of every Briton to understand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expressed in his oath at the coronation, which is administered by one of the archbishops or bishops of the realm, in the presence of the people, who on their parts do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown.

The king of Great Britain, notwithstanding the limitations of the power of the crown, is the greatest monarch reigning over a free people. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treason so much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himself, be deemed guilty of any crime; the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the persons of his ministers, if they infringe the laws of the land. His power is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits, or the boundaries prescribed by the constitution; he can make no new laws, raise no new taxes, nor act in opposition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace, send and receive ambassadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the suppression of rebellions; grant commissions to his officers, both by sea and land, or revoke them at pleasure; dispose of all magazines, castles, &c. summon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or dissolve it at pleasure; refuse his assent to any bill, though it has passed both houses; which, consequently, by such a refusal, has no more force than if it had never been moved: but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very seldom ventured to exercise. He possesses the right of choosing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of state, of the household, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived.

His title, since the Union with Ireland, is in Latin, *Dei Gratia, Britanniarum Rex, Fidei Defensor*, in English, "By the Grace of God, of Great Britain and Ireland King, Defender of the Faith." The designation of the kings of England was formerly "Your Grace," or "Your Highness," till the time of Henry VIII. who, to put himself on a footing with the emperor Charles V. assumed that of "Majesty." The heir apparent is styled "Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall and Rothsay, Earl of Chester and Lanark, Baron of Renfrew, and Lord of the Isles."

Parliaments, or general councils, are, as has been observed, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this island, and coeval with the kingdom itself. Blackstone, in his valuable commentaries, says, "It is generally agreed, that in the main the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the seventeenth of king John, A D. 1215, in the Great Charter granted by that prince, wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, lords, and greater barons, personally; and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the sheriffs and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with forty days' notice, to assess aids and scutages when necessary. This constitution has subsisted at least from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burgesses to parliament."

The parliament is assembled by the king's writs, and its sitting must not be intermitted above three years. Its constituent parts are the king, sitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm; the Lords Spiritual, and Lords Temporal, who sit together with the king in one house, and the Commons, who sit by themselves in another. The king and these three estates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is said to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For, upon their coming together, the king meets them, either in person, or by representation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he also has alone the power of dissolving them.

For preserving the balance of the constitution, the executive power must be a branch, though not the whole of the legislature. The crown cannot begin of itself any alterations in the present established law: but it may approve or disapprove of the alterations suggested and consented to by the two houses. The legislative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own consent; since the law must perpetually stand as it now does, unless all the powers will agree to alter it. In this consists the true excellence of the English constitution, were it maintained in its purity, that all the

parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legislature the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people, by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has resolved; while the king is a check upon both, which preserves the executive power from encroachments.

The Lords Spiritual consist of the archbishops and bishops. The Lords Temporal consist of all the peers of the realm, the bishops not being in strictness held to be such, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers sit by descent, as do all ancient peers; some by creation, as do all the new-made ones; others by election, which is the case of the sixteen peers who represent the body of the Scottish nobility, and the fifty who represent those of Ireland. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increased at will, by the power of the crown.

They have a right to be attended, and consequently are, by the judges of the courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, and such of the barons of the Exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law, as likewise by the masters of the Court of Chancery, for their advice in points of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The speaker of this house is generally the lord chancellor, or lord keeper of the great seal; which dignities are now vested in the same person.

Every peer has a right, by leave of the house, as being his own representative, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons of such dissent, which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasions, however, these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the majority of the house, and have therefore been expunged from their journals, but this has always been thought a violent measure.

The peers of England only require the full age of twenty-one years to become hereditary senators in their several degrees of duke, marquis, earl, viscount, and baron, formerly created by investiture, or symbolic forms, but latterly by patent. The Duke is so styled from the Latin *dux*, a leader or general; the title of Marquis springs from the Gothic language, and implies the commander of a march or frontier; the Earl and Baron are also from the Gothic, and merely imply eminent men; the Viscount is Latin, and signifies the lieutenant of the count or earl. The various orders of nobility have been preserved more pure in England than in any other country; owing partly to the laws of primogeniture, partly to their senatorial office, and partly to the institution of the college of heralds. In Germany, and some other countries, the nobility has fallen into comparative de-

gradation, from the extension of the title to all the sons, and from the presumption of adventurers. The peers are privileged from personal arrest, except for treason, felony, and a few other high offences. They are not only exempt from serving in juries, but must be tried by a jury of peers, who return their verdict, not upon oath, but upon their honour. They are addressed by the ceremonial form of *My Lord*, corresponding with the French *Mon Seigneur*; and the law is so watchful of their reputation, that the statute of *scandalum magnatum* was enacted, to prevent any scandal against them, or discord between them and the people. Every peer may appoint a proxy to vote for him in the senate, a privilege unknown to the Commons.

The *House of Commons* consists of some of the most respectable men of property and talents in the kingdom; every one of whom must be possessed of a certain portion of freehold property, before he is legally qualified to take his seat. They are elected by the people: for, in a free state, every man is supposed to be, in some measure, his own governor; and therefore a branch, at least, of the legislative power should reside in the whole body of the people. Hence it is very wisely contrived that the people should do that by their representatives which it is impracticable to perform in person—representatives chosen by a number of minute and separate districts, wherein all the voters are, or easily may be, distinguished. The counties are therefore represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; the cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burgesses, chosen by the mercantile part, or supposed trading interest of the nation, though with some limitation. Those who are possessed of landed estates, though to the value of only forty shillings per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have most of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. There are, however, very large trading towns, and populous places, which send no members to parliament; and of those towns which do send them, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thousands of persons of great personal property have, therefore, no representatives. Indeed, the inequality and defect of the representation has been justly considered as one of the greatest imperfections in the English constitution; but the way which the disaffected purpose to remedy it is absurd and contemptible. By equal representation they mean, that the *whole* population should be entitled to a vote; a circumstance which, if it were possible to be reduced to practice, would overturn the constitution, and reduce us to a state of continual anarchy.

This house may be styled the grand inquest of the United Kingdom, empowered to enquire into

into all national grievances, in order to see them redressed. The peculiar laws and customs of the Commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the election of members to serve in parliament. With regard to taxes—it is an ancient indisputable privilege and right, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their house, and are first bestowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The reason given for this exclusive privilege of the House of Commons is, that the supplies are raised upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves: and so reasonably jealous are the Commons of this privilege, that herein they will not suffer the other house to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the least alteration or amendment to be made by the Lords in the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill. Under this appellation are included all bills by which money is directed to be raised upon the subject, for any purpose, or in any shape whatsoever; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land-tax; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular district, as by turnpikes, parish-rates, or in any other manner.

The number of English representatives is 513; of Scotch, 45; and of Irish, since the Union, 100: in all 658. Every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm: for the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth; and, as appears from the writ of summons, to advise his Majesty.

Thus the constituent parts of parliament are, the King, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and the Commons; parts, of which each is so necessary, that the consent of all three is required to make any new law that should bind the subject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no statute; and to it no regard is due, unless in matters relating to their own privileges.

Some of the most important privileges of the members of either house are, privilege of speech, of person, of their domestics, and their lands and goods. As to the first, privilege of speech, it is declared by the statute of 1 W. & M. st. 2, c. 2, as one of the liberties of the people, “that the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament.” And this freedom of speech is particularly demanded of the king in person, by the

speaker of the House of Commons, at the opening of every new parliament; so are the other privileges, of person, servants, lands, and goods: this includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but also from legal arrests, and seizures by process from the courts of law. To assault by violence a member of either house, or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there punished with the utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be arrested or taken into custody, nor served with any process of the courts of law; nor can his menial servants be arrested; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament. This exemption from arrests for lawful debts was always considered by the public as a grievance. The Lords and Commons therefore generously relinquished their privileges by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houses may now be sued like other debtors.

The method of making laws is nearly the same in both houses. In each house, the act of the majority binds the whole; and this majority is declared by votes publicly and openly given.

On bringing a bill into the House of Commons, if the relief sought by it be of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition, which must be presented by a member, and usually sets forth the grievance desired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the house; and then (or, otherwise, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house without any petition. In the House of Lords, if the bill begin there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the state of the facts alleged, to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety. The bill is read a first time, and, at a convenient distance, a second time; and after each reading, the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question whether it shall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally opposed, as the bill itself may, at either of the readings; and if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropt for that session, as it must also, if opposed with success, in any of the subsequent stages.

After the second reading, it is committed; that is, referred to a committee, which is either selected by the house, in matters of small importance; or else, if the bill is a matter of great or national consequence, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole house. A committee of the whole

house is composed of every member; and, to form it, the speaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman) and may sit and debate as a private member. In these committees, the bill is debated, clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill is entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made; and then the house reconsider the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. When the house have agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment sewed together. It is then read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it; and if a new clause be added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a *rider*. After the third reading of any bill, the speaker, holding the bill in his hand, enquires if it shall pass the house; if agreed to, the clerk writes on the bill, *Soit baillé aux Seigneurs*; or if in the House of Lords, there is written, *Soit baillé aux Communes*. If the bill be rejected, it cannot be again moved during that session; and it is an usual mode to move that the bill be read in three months, when, by exceeding the limits of the session, it amounts to a less invidious rejection. An advantage of the committee of the whole house is, that the members may answer and reply; whereas in the constituted senate no member can speak twice, except in explanation. When a bill has passed, the title to it is then settled. Next it is carried to the Lords, for their concurrence, by one of the members, who, attended by several more, presents it at the bar of the House of Peers, and there delivers it to their speaker, the Lord Chancellor, who comes down from his wool-sack to receive it. It there passes through the same forms as in the other house, except engrossing, which is already done; and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it passes *sub silentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the Lords send a message by two masters in chancery (or sometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges), that they have agreed to the same; and the bill remains with the Lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, such amendments are sent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the Commons. If the Commons disagree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house, who, for the most part, settle and adjust the difference; but if both houses remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the Commons agree to the amendments, the bill

is sent back to the Lords by one of the members, with a message to acquaint them therewith. The same forms are observed, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the House of Lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is passed, it is first signed by his Majesty, and then read once only in each of the houses, without any new engrossing or amendment. When both houses have done with any bill, it is always deposited in the House of Peers, to wait the royal assent; except in the case of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the Lords, is sent back to the House of Commons. Both in the houses and in their committees, the slightest expression, or most minute alteration, does not pass till the speaker or the chairman puts the question, which in the House of Commons is answered by *aye* or *no*, and in the House of Peers by *content* or *not content*.

The giving of the royal assent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to pass bills in person, he appears on his throne in the House of Peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of state, and heralds. A seat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly sat, is reserved for the Prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood sit on the left hand of the king, and the chancellor on a close bench removed a little backwards. The viscounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches, or woolpacks, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of bishops runs along the house to the bar, on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, sit upon woolpacks between the barons and the throne. The house sitting on wool is symbolical of wool being formerly the staple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on solemn occasions, appear in their parliamentary robes; but none of the commons have any robes, excepting the speaker, who wears a long black silk gown; and when he appears before the king it is trimmed with gold.

The royal assent may be given two ways: 1. In person. When the king sends for the Commons to the House of Peers, the speaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addresses his Majesty in a solemn speech, in which he seldom fails to extol the generosity and loyalty of the Commons, and to tell his Majesty how necessary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occasion that the Commons of the United Kingdom appear in their highest lustre. The titles of all bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king's answer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman French. If the king consents to a public bill, the clerk usually declares,

declares, *Le roy le veut*, "The king wills it so to be: if to a private bill, *Soit fait comme il est désiré*, "Be it as it is desired." If the king refuses his assent, it is in the gentle language of *Le Roy s'aviserà*, "The king will advise upon it." When a money bill is passed, it is carried up and presented to the king by the speaker of the House of Commons, and the royal assent is thus expressed, *Le roy remercie ses loyal sujets, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut*; "The king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it so to be." In case of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal assent in the first stage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the subject: *Les prelates, seigneurs, et commons, en ce present parlement assemblés, au nom de tous vos autres sujets, remercient tres humblement votre majesté, et prient a Dieu vous donner en santé bonne vie et longue*; "The prelates, lords, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, in the name of all your other subjects, most humbly thank your majesty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the stat. 33 Henry VIII. c. 21, the king may give his assent by letters patent under his great seal, signed with his hand, and notified, in his absence, to both houses assembled together, in the high house, by commissioners consisting of certain peers named in the letters. And when the bill has received the royal assent in either of these ways, it is then, and not before, a statute or act of parliament.

The statute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom, there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was necessary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; because every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being present thereat by his representatives. However, copies thereof are usually printed at the king's press, for the information of the whole land.

The attention of the nation is chiefly directed to the parliament when grand political questions arise concerning war and peace, or affecting the constitutional liberties of the land. On such occasions the utmost powers of eloquence are exerted; and specimens produced worthy of Greece or Rome.

Adjournments may frequently happen in one session, and the business is continued and resumed; but a prorogation terminates the session, and the bills not then passed must recommence their whole progress. By a modern statute, the death of the king does not, as formerly, terminate the parliament; which, on the contrary, had it been previously dissolved, may on that event resume its functions.

From this general sketch of the constitution of the United Kingdom, it appears, that no security for its permanency, which the wit of man can de-

vise, is wanting. If it should be objected, that parliaments may become so corrupted as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the answer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are supposed to watch over their political existence, as a private person does over his natural life. If a parliament were to act in that manner, it must become *felo de se*, an evil that no human provisions could guard against. But there are great resources of liberty in England; and though the constitution has been dangerously injured, and sometimes overturned, yet its own innate powers have recovered and still preserve it.

The king, besides his high court of parliament, has subordinate officers and ministers to assist him, who are responsible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and, on taking the requisite oaths, they become immediately privy-councillors during the life of the king that chooses them, but subject to removal at his pleasure.

The duty of a privy-councillor appears from the oath of office, which consists of seven articles: 1. To advise the king according to the best of his judgment and discretion. 2. To advise for the king's honour, and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's council secret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and strengthen the execution of what shall be there resolved. 6. To withstand all persons who would attempt the contrary. And lastly, in general, 7. To observe, keep, and do all that a good and true councillor ought to do to his sovereign lord.

As no government can be so complete as to be provided with laws that may answer every unforeseen emergency, the privy-council, in such cases, can supply the deficiency. It has been ever known, that upon great and urgent occasions, such as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they can supersede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not sitting; but this is considered as illegal, and an act of parliament must pass for the pardon and indemnification of those concerned.

The office of *Secretary of State* was formerly divided into a southern and a northern department. The southern contained France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiss cantons, Constantinople, and in short, all the states in the southern parts. The northern comprehended the different states of Germany, Prussia, Poland, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanseatic towns. This distinction is now abolished; and there is one *Secretary for Foreign Affairs*, and another for the *Home Department*.

The cabinet council is a committee of the privy council, consisting of a select number of ministers and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their

their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court; but though its operations are powerful and extensive, a cabinet council is not essential to the constitution of England.

This observation naturally leads us to mention the person who is so well known by the name of the *First* or *Prime Minister*; a term unknown to the English constitution, though the office be perhaps necessary. The constitution points out the Lord High Chancellor as minister; but the affairs of his own court give him sufficient employment. When the office of the First Lord of the Treasury is united with that of Chancellor of the Exchequer (offices which we shall explain hereafter) in the same person, he is considered as first minister. But his majesty may make any of his servants his first minister; and though it is no office, yet there is a responsibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a post of difficulty and danger.

The following is a short review of the nine great officers of the crown, who, by their posts, take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The first is the *Lord High Steward* of England. This is an office very ancient, and was formerly hereditary, or at least for life; but now, and for centuries past, it is exercised only occasionally, that is, at a coronation, or to sit as a judge on a peer or peeress, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held for that day only, by some high nobleman. In cases of trials, it is exercised generally by the Lord Chancellor, or Lord Keeper, whose commission as High Steward ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The *Lord High Chancellor* presides in the Court of Chancery, to moderate the severities of the law in all cases where the property of the subject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reason. He is an officer of the greatest weight and power of any now subsisting in the kingdom, and is superior in precedence to every temporal lord. He is a privy-councillor by his office; and, according to some, prolocutor of the House of Lords by prescription. To him belongs the appointment of all justices of the peace; he is visitor, in right of the king, of all hospitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of twenty pounds per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and hath the superintendence of all charitable uses in the kingdom, over and above the extensive jurisdiction which he exercises in his judicial capacity in the Court of Chancery.

The post of *Lord High Treasurer* has of late been vested in a commission, consisting of five per-

sons who are called *Lords of the Treasury*; but the first commissioner is supposed to possess the power of Lord High Treasurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the Exchequer; as also the letting of the leases of all crown lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the customs in the several ports of the kingdom.

The *Lord President of the Council* was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the Lord Chancellor and Lord Treasurer. His duty is to propose all the business transacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majesty is not present, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vast number of American and West-Indian causes, captures, and the like affairs that come before the board; all which may be abridged, to the vast convenience of the subject, by an able president.

The office of *Lord Privy-Seal* consists in his putting the king's seal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are signed by the king, in order to their passing the great seal; and he is responsible if he should apply the privy-seal to any thing against the law of the land.

The office of *Lord Great Chamberlain* of England is hereditary in the Duke of Ancaster's family. He attends the king's person, on his coronation, to dress him; he has likewise charge of the House of Lords during the sitting of parliament; and of fitting up Westminster Hall for coronations, trials of peers, or impeachments.

The office of *Lord High Constable* has been dispensed with since the attainder and execution of Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521; but is occasionally revived for a coronation.

The Duke of Norfolk is hereditary *Earl Marshal* of England. Before England became so commercial a country as it has been for a hundred years past, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the English history, for its discharge. In war time he was judge of army causes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cause did not admit of such a decision, it was left to a personal combat, which was attended with a vast variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the smallest trifle, fell within the marshal's province. Even at this period he, or his deputy, regulates all points of precedence according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his jurisdiction. He directs all solemn processions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, &c.

The office of *Lord High Admiral* of England is now likewise held by commission, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, especially since the formidable increase of the British naval

naval power. The English Admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itself. This board regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named; so that its jurisdiction is very extensive. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commission immediately issuing from that board; and the members must sign even the death-warrants for execution; but it may be easily conceived, that, as they are removable at pleasure, they do nothing that can clash with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themselves to the directions they receive from his majesty. The commissioners appoint vice-admirals under them: but an appeal from them lies to the High Court of Admiralty, which is of a civil nature. This court is held in Doctors' Commons; and all its processes and proceedings run in the Lord High Admiral's name, or those of the commissioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at sea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witnesses and a jury, ever since the reign of Henry VIII. Within the last twenty years there have been many changes in the appointments of the Board of Admiralty; and in some recent cases, it has had the novel superintendence of first lords who have never been at sea! All the subordinate lords, however, are naval officers.

SECTION V.

Summary of the History of England.

IN our description of the origin of the people of this island, we have already noticed that the first inhabitants were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, who first emigrated hither from the opposite shore; a supposition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cæsar, about 52 years before the birth of Christ, meditated the conquest of Britain, the natives had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæsar wrote the history of two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vast difficulties, and attended by such advantages over the islanders that they agreed to pay tribute. It appears, however, from contemporary and other authors, as well as Cæsar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indecisive; nor did the Romans receive the least advantage from his expedition but a better knowledge of

the island than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Cæsar's descent, were governed, in period of war, by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hertfordshire and some of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for some time.

Their manner of life, as described by Cæsar and the best authors, differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates whom we shall have occasion to mention; but they certainly sowed corn, though perhaps they chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing was skins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were incredibly dexterous in the management of their chariots; and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as sovereigns in their particular districts. They favoured the primogeniture or seniority in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconvenience attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals and heavenly bodies on their skins. In their marriages they were not very delicate; for they formed themselves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common with all; but her children belonged to the original husband.

Thus the Britons lived, during the long reign of Augustus Cæsar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæsar, about 42 years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful, against Britain. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea, though a woman, made noble stands against the Romans. The former was taken prisoner, after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicea being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this island, they erected those walls which have been often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; and we are told that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems to be

be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies abroad, on account of the superior strength of body and courage of the inhabitants when disciplined. That this was the case appears plainly enough from the defenceless state of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that island. We have already taken notice that, during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under them the South Britons were reduced to a state of great vassalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave resistance against these tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unquestionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no struggle they made in latter times for their independency at home, notwithstanding the many favourable opportunities that presented. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this island, assisted by the Britons, were frequently employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the southern Britons retired northwards); but they appear to have had no difficulty in maintaining their authority in the southern provinces.

During the vast inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itself, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire; and that they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone the wall of Severus between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch towers; and having done this good office, took their last farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been masters of the most fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invasion of Julius Cæsar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts, finding the island deserted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, and ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in those ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inspire. The Britons, like a helpless family deprived of their parent and protector, already subdued by their own fears, had again recourse to Rome, and sent over their miserable epistle for relief (still upon record), which was addressed in these words, *To Aëtius, thrice consul: The groans of the Britons;* and after other lamentable complaints stated, *That the barbarians drove them to*

the sea, and the sea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of perishing by the sword or by the waves. But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any succours from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief. Gildas, who was himself a Briton, describes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful strains, and gives some confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Danmonii*, by whose advice the Britons agreed with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English Channel; and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progress of the Scots and Picts, and had the island of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time Hengist and Horsa began to meditate a settlement for themselves; and fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent struggle of near one hundred and fifty years, they subdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and their descendants still remain.

Literature at this time in England was so rude, that we know but little of its history. The Saxons were ignorant of letters; and public transactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a class of men whom they held in great veneration.

We cannot find room in this summary to relate the separate history of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is sufficient to say, that the pope in Austin's time supplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popish clergy took care to keep their kings and laity in the most deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and sanctity of his holiness. Hence it was that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by priests and monks, who, as they saw convenient, persuaded their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days: no less than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, resigned their crowns in that manner; and among them was Ina, king of the West Saxons, though in other respects he was a wise and brave prince. The bounty of those Anglo-Saxon kings to the see of Rome was, therefore, unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, imposed an annual tax of a penny upon every house, which was afterwards known

known by the name of Peter's pence, because paid on the holiday of *St. Peter ad vincula*, August 1st. This tax was imposed at first for the support of a college at Rome, for the education of English youth, founded by Ina, king of Wessex, under the name of *Rome-Scol*; but in process of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his successors.

Notwithstanding all these disadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in comparison of the nations on the continent; because they were free from the Saracens, or successors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the East upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very considerable trade; and if we are to credit the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Wessex, a sum in silver equal to £90,000 sterling, in the year 694. England, therefore, we may suppose to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable but superstitious Bede, about the year 740, composed his church history of Britain, from the coming in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldest and most authentic monuments of history that any nation can produce. Architecture, such as it was, with stone and glass-working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was served in silver plate. It must, however, be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and ale-houses are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this state was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when, about the year 800, most of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldest remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who first arrived in Britain. On the submission of the Northumbrians, in the year 827, he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, called Charlemagne, was then king of France and emperor of Germany. Egbert had been obliged, by state jealousies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the persecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the West Saxons. Egbert acquired, at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and therefore soon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own person, but without subduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of *Engle-land*, or *England*; but there is reason to believe that some part of England continued still to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid perhaps a

small tribute to Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Winchester, his chief residence.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. By this time England had become a scene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Danish invasions; and Ethelwolf, after some time bravely opposing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngest son, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the English constitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occasion (copies of which are still remaining) are so immense, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they shew his intellect to have been disturbed by his devotion, or that he was swayed by the arts of Swithin, bishop of Winchester. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his sons, (Athelstan being then dead) Ethelbald and Ethelbert; but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the surviving son, left his kingdom (866) to his brother Ethelred; in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the sea-coast, and the finest counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought seven battles with the Danes with various success; and when defeated, he found resources that rendered him as puissant as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to an uncommon state of distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cow-herd; but still he kept up a secret correspondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together; and by their assistance he gave the Danes many signal overthrows, till at last he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes, who had been settled in it, to swear obedience to his government; even part of Wales courted his protection: so that he was the most powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raising a maritime power in England, by which he secured her coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the university of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather, he revived those divisions, and the use of juries, which had fallen into disuse by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was not only a scholar, but an author; and he tells us, that upon his accession to the throne he had scarcely a lay subject who could read English, or an ecclesiastic who understood Latin. He introduced stone and brick building into general use in
palaces

palaces as well as churches; though it is certain that his subjects, for many years after his death, were fond of timber-buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may seem incredible to modern times: but he had merchants who traded in East India jewels; and William of Malmsbury says, that some of their gems were deposited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Oother, about the year 890, a full discovery of the coast of Norway and Lapland, as far as Russia; and he tells the king, in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he sailed along the Norway coast, so far north as commonly the whale-hunters used to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and useful allies in the two Scotch kings, his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, against the Danes. He is said to have fought no less than fifty-six pitched battles. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil-doers. He died in the year 901; and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly distinguished with the epithet of *the Great*.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invasions. He died in the year 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince was such an encourager of commerce, as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, should be put upon a footing with a *thane*, or *nobleman*, of the first rank. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage; and we find by his laws, that archbishops, bishops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of coining money. His dominions appear, however, to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vassals still kept a footing in those counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours the Scots in particular, in which he was generally successful, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious; they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is said to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings, his vassals, he sitting at the helm; but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of priests, particularly of St. Dunstan. His reign, however, was pacific and happy, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tyne. He was succeeded, in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother; whose son Ethelred, by the aid of priests, mounted the throne

in 978. The English nation, at this time, was overrun with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became possessed of the finest parts of the country, while their countrymen made sometimes dreadful descents in the western parts. To disentangle himself from them, he agreed to pay them £30,000, which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the first land-tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred consented to a general massacre of them by the English; but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind were undoubtedly made in particular counties; but they served only to enrage the Danish king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two sons, out of England into Normandy, a province of France, at that time governed by its own princes, styled the Dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great; but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged Edmund Ironside (so called for his great bodily strength), Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his son, Harold Harefoot, did nothing memorable; and his successor, Hardicanute, was so degenerate a prince, that the Danish royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confessor, ascended it; though Edgar Atheling, by being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was living. Upon the death of the Confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Goodwin, earl of Kent, ascended the throne of England.

William, duke of Normandy, though illegitimate, was then in the unrivalled possession of that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to assist him effectually. By this means he collected 40,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe; and while Harold was embarrassed with fresh invasions from the Danes, William landed in England without opposition. Harold, returning from the north, encountered him at the place now called Battle, which took its name from that event, near Hastings in Sussex, and a most bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being slain, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

We have very particular accounts of the value of provisions

provisions and manufactures in those days: a palfrey cost one shilling; an acre of land (according to Bishop Fleetwood in his *Chronicon Pretiosum*) one shilling; a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100 shillings: but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which those shillings bore to the present standard of money, though many ingenious treatises have been written on that head. A sheep was estimated at one shilling; an ox was computed at six shillings; a cow at four shillings; a man at three pounds. The board-wages of a child the first year was eight shillings. The tenants of Shireburn were obliged, at their choice, to pay either sixpence, or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much used. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceased: entails were sometimes practised in those times.

Respecting the manners of the Anglo-Saxons we can say little, but that they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Even so low as the reign of Canute, they sold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct. Even the Norman historians, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, speak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invasion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conquest put the people in a situation of receiving slowly from abroad all the rudiments of science and cultivation, and of correcting their rude and licentious manners. Their uncultivated state might be owing to the clergy, who always discouraged manufactures.

It is necessary, however, to distinguish between the secular clergy, and the regulars, or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magistrates. The latter depended upon the see of Rome, and directed the conscience of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often sanguinary. A great part of the Saxon barbarism was likewise owing to the Danish invasions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. * Amidst all those defects, public and personal liberty were well understood and guarded by the Saxon institutions; and we owe to them at this day the most valuable privileges of the English subject.

The loss which both parties suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors

say, that Harold was so impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of numbers was on the side of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold seems to have decided the day; and William, with very little farther difficulty, took possession of the throne, and made a considerable alteration in the constitution of England, by converting lands into knights' fees*, which are said to have amounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great persons who had assisted him in his conquest, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave, for instance, to one of his barons the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independent of the crown; and here, according to some historians, we have the rise of the feudal law in England. William found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his sister, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland; and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conspiracies in England. William overcame all difficulties, especially after he had made a peace with Malcolm, king of Scotland, who married Atheling's sister; but not without exercising horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants: in short, he attempted every thing possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution; though, at his coronation, he took the same oath that used to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He caused a general survey of all the lands in England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confessor's time), and an account to be taken of the villains or servile tenants, slaves, and live-stock, upon each estate; all which were recorded in a book called *Doomsday-book*, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repose of this fortunate and victorious king was disturbed, in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son, Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now assumed the government, as sovereign, of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the rise of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable achievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern history. William, seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his

* Four hides of land made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's fee; and when *Doomsday-book* was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

usual vigour; and, with incredible celerity, transporting a brave English army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious; but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, the sixty-first year of his age, and twenty-first of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

In consequence of the Norman conquest, England not only lost the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but also her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland; where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they established themselves; and, what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or English, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day. On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conquest, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the accession of so much territory upon the continent: for though the Normans, by the conquest, gained much of the English land and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewise gained much by the great increase of naval power, and multitude of ships, wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourse between England and the continent, gave us an increase of trade and commerce, and of treasure to the crown and kingdom, as appeared soon afterwards. England, by the conquest, gained likewise a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before acquired only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings: for the dominion of the narrow seas seems naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to those who possess the banks or coasts on both sides; and thus the former title was confirmed by so long a coast as that of Normandy on one side, and of England on the other side of the Channel. This dominion of the Channel, though we have long ago lost all our possessions in France, we have continued to defend and maintain by the bravery of our seamen, and the superior strength of our navy to any other power.

The succession to the crown of England was disputed between the Conqueror's sons, Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired), and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewise hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother; and, consequently, he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers and rebellious subjects. About this time the crusades of the Holy Land began; and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of

money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter; but was accidentally killed, as he was hunting in New Forest in Hampshire, in the year 1100, in the 44th year of his age.

William II. built Westminster Hall, as it now stands, and added several works to the tower, which he surrounded with a wall and a ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the sea, which overflowed great part of Earl Goodwin's estate in Kent, and formed those shallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands. He was succeeded by his brother, Henry I. surnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be said to have purchased the throne; first, by his brother's treasures, which he seized at Winchester; secondly, by a charter, in which he restored his subjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and, thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign, in a great measure, restored the clergy to their influence in the state; and they formed, as it were, a separate body, dependent upon the Pope, which afterwards created great convulsions in England. Henry, partly by force, and partly by stratagem, made himself master of his brother Robert's person, and duchy of Normandy; and, with the most ungenerous meanness, detained him a prisoner, for 28 years, till the time of his death; in the meanwhile quieting his conscience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody, but successful war with France; and, before his death, he settled the succession upon his daughter, the empress Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit, in the 78th year of his age, 1135.

Notwithstanding the late settlement of succession, the crown of England was claimed and seized by Stephen, earl of Blois, the son of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her son were then abroad; and Stephen was assisted in his usurpation by his brother the bishop of Winchester, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown dependent, as it were, upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle David king of Scotland; and a worthy subject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Gloucester, who headed her party before her son grew up. A long and bloody war ensued, the clergy having absolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of succession; but at length

length the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken prisoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, she scornfully upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains. Matilda was proud and wanted talents: the clergy were bold and ambitious; and, when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his accession; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen, having been exchanged for the earl of Gloucester, who had been taken prisoner likewise, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal subjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was advised to attempt to force them into compliance with his will, by declaring his son Eustace heir-apparent to the kingdom; and this exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was son to the empress; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This measure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehensive of a second conquest; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay-aristocracy, proposed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time lost his son Eustace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact invested with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his successor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the English, who had suffered so much during the late civil wars, with great joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greatest prince of his time. He soon discovered extraordinary abilities for government; and had performed, in the 16th year of his age, actions that would have dignified the most experienced warriors. At his accession to the throne he found the condition of the English boroughs greatly ameliorated, by the privileges granted them in the struggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to such a height, that if a bondman or servant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by such residence made free.

He erected Wallingford, Winchester, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the services the inhabitants had done to his mother and himself, by discharging them from every burden, except the fixed fee-farm rent of such towns; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vast accession of power to the crown, because the crown alone could support the boroughs against their feudal tyrants; and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very scrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he resumed the excessive grants of crown lands made by Stephen, which were represented as illegal. He demolished many of the castles that had been built by the barons; but, when he came to attack the clergy, he found their usurpations not to be shaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous disorders lay in Rome, where the Popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The cruelties and disorders occasioned by those exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not attested by the most unexceptionable evidence. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the English church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas à Becket. This man, powerful from his office, and still more so by his popularity, arising from a pretended sanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but at the same time cool and politic. The king assembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is still famous for the constitutions there enacted, which, in fact, abolished the authority of the Romish see over the English clergy. Becket, finding it in vain to resist the stream, signed those constitutions till they could be ratified by the Pope, who, as he foresaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the most determined spirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the see of Rome was in its meridian grandeur. Becket, having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the Pope and the French king espoused his quarrel. The effect was, that all the English clergy who were on the king's side were excommunicated, and the laity absolved from their allegiance. This disconcerted Henry so much, that he submitted to treat, and even to be insulted by this rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the streets of London in 1170. His return swelled his pride, and increased his insolence, till both became insupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the first subject in his own dominions, he was heard to say, in the anguish of his heart, "Is there no one who will revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest?" These words reached the ears of four knights,

knights, Reginald Fitzurse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, and Richard Brito; who, without acquainting Henry with their intentions, went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury, in the year 1171. Henry was in no condition to second the blind obedience of his knights; and the public resentment rose so high, on the supposition that he was privy to the murder, that he submitted to be scourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in consequence of his well-known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually resumed their most valuable possessions in the north of England. This occasioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken prisoner; and, to deliver himself from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was also agreed, that liege homage should be done, and fealty sworn to Henry, without reserve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland from whom Henry should desire it, in the same manner as by his other vassals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewise obliged to render liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewise distinguished his reign by the conquest of Ireland: and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, but the heiress of Guienne and Poitou, he became almost as powerful in France as the French king himself, and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his old age, however, he was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleasure, and embarrassed himself in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond, which were resented by his queen Eleanor, who even engaged her sons, Henry (whom his father had unadvisedly caused to be crowned in his own life-time), Richard, and John, in repeated rebellions; which affected their father so much, as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon, in France, in the year 1189, and fifty-seventh of his age. The sum he left in ready money at his death has perhaps been exaggerated; but the most moderate accounts make it amount to £200,000 of our money.

During the reign of Henry corporation charters were established all over England; by which, as already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Those corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, especially those of silk, seem still to have been confined to Spain and Italy: for the silk coronation robes made use of by young Henry and his queen, cost £87 10s. 4d. in the sheriff of London's ac-

count, printed by Mr. Maddox; a vast sum in those days. Henry introduced the use of glass in windows into England, and stone arches in buildings. In this reign, and in those barbarous ages, it was a custom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more, of the sons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themselves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houses and plunder them, to rob and murder passengers, and to commit, with impunity, all sorts of disorders. Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into six parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year, and hold *assizes*, or administer justice to the people, as is practised at this day.

This sovereign so far abolished the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting ships which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal were alive in the ship, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners. This prince was also the first who levied a tax on the moveable and personal estates of his subjects, nobles as well as people. To shew the genius of these ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbishop of York and Richard archbishop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when ecclesiastics could proceed to such extremities. The Pope's legate having summoned an assembly of the clergy at London, both the archbishops claimed the privilege of sitting on his right hand; which question of precedency begot a controversy between them. The monks and retainers of archbishop Richard fell upon Roger, in the presence of the cardinal and synod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and so bruised him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty saved from their violence.

Richard I. surnamed Cœur de Lion, from his great courage, was the third but eldest surviving son of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over; and for their own ends they persuaded him to make a most magnificent but ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon, and performed actions of valour that gave countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After several glorious but fruitless campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin, emperor of the Saracens; and, in his return to England, was treacherously surprised by the duke of Austria, who, in 1193, sent him a prisoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the sordid emperor at 150,000 marks, about £300,000 of our present money. While the Scottish kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their interest, once generally in every king's reign, to perform homage; but when they were deprived of their lands, they paid it no more.

Richard

Richard was slain in besieging the castle of Châlons, in the year 1199, the 42d of his age, and 10th of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who succeeded him, was infamous. He is said to have put to death Arthur, the eldest son of his brother Geoffry, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Constance, complained to Philip, the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vassal, deprived him of Normandy. John, notwithstanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Irish, gave many proofs of personal valour; but became at last so apprehensive of a French invasion, that he rendered himself a tributary to the Pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandolph, who kept them for five days. The great barons resented his meanness, by taking arms; but he repeated his shameful submissions to the Pope; and, after experiencing various fortunes of war, was at last so reduced, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to sign the great deed so well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is, in fact, no other than a renewal of those immunities which the barons and their followers had possessed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better secured, this charter, by various subsequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgesses. John had scarcely signed it, but he retracted it, and called upon the Pope for protection; when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the Pope; and the barons being apprehensive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the Pope refused to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age, just as he had a glimpse of resuming his authority.

The crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's son, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was chosen his guardian; and the Pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died 1219, and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The king was of a soft pliable disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. He seems always endeavouring to evade the privileges which he had been

compelled to grant and confirm. An association of the barons was formed against him and his government; and a civil war breaking out, Henry seemed to be abandoned by all but his Gascons and foreign mercenaries. His profusion brought him into inexpressible difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his sister, and was made earl of Leicester, being chosen general of the association, the king and his two sons were defeated and taken prisoners at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort and the earl of Gloucester, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldest son, obtained his liberty, and assembling as many as he could of his father's subjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Eversham, August 4th, 1265, and killed Montfort. The representatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgesses, formed now part of the English legislature, in a separate house; and this gave the first blow to feudal tenures in England: but historians are not agreed in what manner the commons before this time formed any part of the English parliaments, or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, the 64th year of his age, and 56th of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet, to the struggles of this reign the people in great measure owe the liberties of the present day. Interest had in that age mounted to an enormous height. There are instances of fifty per cent. being paid for money; which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithstanding the grievous oppressions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age and Henry's extortions. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely disused, and that by *duel* discouraged. Bracton's famous law treatise was published in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite* to his coronation dinner, which consisted (such was the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 sheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats. Alexander III. king of Scotland, was at the solemnity, and on the occasion 500 horses were let loose, for those that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince; and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, interests, and constitution of his kingdom; his regulations, and reformation of the laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He passed the famous *Mortmain* act, whereby all persons "were restrained from giving, by will or otherwise, their estates to (those so called) religious purposes, and the societies that never die, without a licence

a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the Cinque Ports, which, though now very inconsiderable, were then obliged to attend the king, when he went beyond the sea, with fifty-seven ships, each having twenty armed soldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own costs for the space of fifteen days. He reduced the Welsh to pay him tribute, and annexed that principality to his crown, and was the first who gave the title of Prince of Wales to his eldest son.

The vast connections of this prince with the continent were productive of many benefits to his subjects, particularly by the introduction of reading-glasses and spectacles; though they are said to have been invented in the late reign by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the same time; and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an assay, and mark of the Goldsmiths' Company. Edward's continental wars were, however, unfortunate both to himself and the English, by draining them of their wealth; and it is thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the Pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, in the 69th year of his age, and 35th of his reign, while he was engaged in a new expedition against Scotland. He ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, with £32,000 for the maintenance of the *Holy Sepulchre*.

Edward II. his son and successor, shewed early dispositions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveston, his chief minion, a Gascon, being banished by his father Edward, he ascended the throne with vast advantages, both political and personal, all which he soon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveston, and loaded him with honours; and married Isabella, daughter of the French king, who restored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had lost in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to banish his favourite, and to confirm the Great Charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Sterling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in person received the greatest defeat England ever suffered, in 1314. Gaveston being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a spy upon the king, but he soon became his favourite. He, through his pride, avarice, and ambition, was banished, together with his father, whom he had procured to be made earl of Winchester. The queen, a furious, ambitious woman, persuaded her husband to recal the Spencers; while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's standard, and, after defeating them, restored him to the exercise of all his prerogatives. A cruel use was made of those successes; and many noble patriots,

with their estates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at last she became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her prisoner, and had been one of the most active of the anti-royalist lords. A breach between her and the Spencers followed; and going over to France with her lover, she found means to form such a party in England that, returning with some French troops, she put the eldest Spencer to an ignominious death, made her husband prisoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his son Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt; and he was barbarously murdered, in the year 1327, in Berkeley-castle, by ruffians, supposed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer.

It has been estimated that, on an average, the difference of living, then and now, seems to be nearly as five or six is to one; always remembering that their money contained thrice as much silver as our money or coin of the same denomination does. The Knights Templars were suppressed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. ascended the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer; and they endeavoured to keep possession of their power by executing many popular measures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland, for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, however, notwithstanding his youth was soon sensible of their designs, and surprised them in person at the head of a few chosen friends in the castle of Nottingham. Mortimer was hanged as a traitor on the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herself was shut up in confinement to her death, a period of 28 years. Edward soon found means to quarrel with David, king of Scotland, though he had married his sister. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary king of Scotland, and general, and did the same homage to Edward for Scotland, as his father had done to Edward I. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without issue), who had succeeded by virtue of the Salic law, which, the French pretended, cut off all female succession to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir-male by succession; but he was opposed by Edward, as being the son of Isabella, who was sister to the three last mentioned kings of France, and first in the female succession. The former was preferred; but the case being doubtful, Edward pursued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

The vast difference between the feudal constitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable
to

to public liberty, was evident on this occasion. The French officers knew no subordination. They and their men were equally undisciplined and disobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The English freemen, on the other hand, having now vast property to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a feudal law, knew its value, and had learned to defend it, by providing themselves with proper armour, and submitting to military exercises and regular subordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued scene of success and victory. In 1340 he took the title of king of France, using it in all public acts, and quartering the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right." At Cressy, August 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but sixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four), though the English did not exceed 30,000. The loss of the French far exceeded the number of the English army; whose loss consisted of no more than three knights and one esquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poitiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with greatly superior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite son Philip taken prisoners. The number of French killed in this battle is supposed to have been double that of all the English army: but the modesty and politeness with which the prince treated his royal prisoners formed the brightest wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, she had the good fortune to take prisoner David king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England, about six weeks after the battle of Cressy was fought, and remained a prisoner 11 years. Thus Edward had the glory to see two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ransomed; David for 100,000 marks, and John for 3,000,000 of gold crowns; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is said to have been frightened by a dreadful storm, his fortunes declined. He had resigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales; and he sunk in the esteem of his subjects at home, on account of his attachment to his mistress, one Alice Pierce. The Prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince*, from his wearing that armour,

while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinstated Peter the Cruel on that throne was seized with a consumptive disorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long survive him; for he died at Sheen, in Surry, in 1377, the 65th of his age, and 51st of his reign.

No prince ever understood the balance and interest of Europe better than Edward did; and he was one of the best and most illustrious kings that sat on the English throne. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and of establishing the woollen manufacture among the English, who, till his time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. Historians do not agree whether Edward made use of artillery in his first invasion of France; but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent castle of Windsor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may serve as a specimen of the condition of the people of that age. Instead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he assembled every county in England to send him so many masons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enlisted only for a short time; for as one successful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ransom of prisoners, was supposed to be a small fortune to a man, it was a great allurements to enter into the service. The wages of a master carpenter was limited, through the whole year, to three-pence a day, a common carpenter to two-pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe a secular priest, educated at Oxford, began in the latter end of this reign, to spread the doctrines of reformation, by his discourses, sermons, and writings; making many disciples of all ranks and stations. He was a man of parts, learning, and piety, and has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question those doctrines which had generally passed for certain and undisputed during so many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe, being derived from his search into the scriptures, and ecclesiastical antiquity, were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the 16th century. But though the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reserved for a more free and enquiring age. He had many friends in the university of Oxford, and at court, and was powerfully protected against the evil designs of the Pope and bishops, by John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, one of the king's sons,

* He was also the first in England that had the title of *Duke*, being created by his father Duke of Cornwall; and ever since, the eldest son of the king of England is by birth Duke of Cornwall.

and other great men. His disciples were distinguished by the name of Wickliffites, or Lollards.

Richard II. son of the Black Prince, was only 11 years of age when he ascended the throne. The English arms were then unsuccessful both in France and Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains and lower ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in so flourishing a state, that corn and other viands were suffered to be transported; and the English had acquired a method of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they seem, from records, to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England; and so many men were employed in unsuccessful wars, that the commons of England, like powder receiving a spark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a priest, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, the lowest of the people. The conduct of these insurgents was very violent, and in many respects extremely unjustifiable; but it cannot justly be denied that the common people of England then laboured under many oppressions, particularly a *poll-tax*, and had abundant reason to be discontented with the government. At that period Richard was not above sixteen; but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the storm of the insurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malcontents, to death, in the midst of his adherents. Richard then associated to himself a new set of favourites: his people and great lords again took up arms, and being headed by the duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being insincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more despotic than any king in England ever had been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party formed in England, the natural result of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaster the crown. He landed from France, at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men, all of

them English. Richard hurried back to England, where, his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects, whom he had affected to despise, generally deserting him, he was made prisoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and misconduct, and soon after he is supposed to have been starved to death in prison, in 1399, the 34th year of his age, and the 23d of his reign, leaving no issue.

Though the nobility of England were possessed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonstrate boldly in parliament against the usury which was but too much practised in England, and other abuses both of clergy and laity; and the destruction of the feudal powers soon followed.

Henry IV. son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. being settled on the throne in prejudice to the elder branches of that family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependent upon them. At first some conspiracies were formed against him among his great men, as the dukes of Surrey and Exeter, the earls of Gloucester and Salisbury, and the archbishop of York; but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was understood by the Percy family, the greatest in the north of England, who complained of Henry's having deprived them of some Scotch prisoners, whom they had taken in battle; and the dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his son, the famous Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur; but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune Henry suppressed the insurrection of the Welsh, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent concessions to his parliament, to his commons particularly, he at last conquered all opposition; while, to salve the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, thereby shutting out all female succession. The young duke of Rothsay, heir to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), falling a prisoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of infinite service to his government; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and the 13th of his reign, he had the satisfaction to see his son and successor, the prince of Wales, disengage himself from many youthful follies which, till then, had disgraced his conduct.

The English marine was now so greatly increased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burden, carrying

carrying on a great trade all over Europe, but with the Hanse towns in particular.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was against England at the accession of Henry V. in 1413; so greatly had luxury increased. Henry was about this time engaged in a contest with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been taken from England in the preceding reigns, also the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ransom since the reign of Edward III.; and availing himself of the distracted state of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, where he first took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled those of Cressy and Poitiers, in glory to the English, but exceeded them in its consequences, on account of the vast number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were slain there. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made such alliances, and divided the French among themselves so effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whose husband, Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princess Catharine, to disinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her husband's life, and him and his issue successors to the French monarch, who must at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king still continued Henry's captive) furnished the dauphin with vast supplies, and preserved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proscribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might crush the dauphin and his Scottish auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuritic disorder (1442) in the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

The great successes of Henry V. in France revived the trade of England, and at the same time increased and established the privileges and liberties of the commonalty. But it required princes equally able with the two preceding to confirm the title of the Lancaster house to the throne of England. Henry VI. surnamed of Windsor, was only nine months old, when, in consequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, both of them princes of great accomplishments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preserve their brother's conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor, Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who

was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conquest of France. The siege was raised by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans; a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history, she being born of the lowest extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and some time a helper in stables in public inns. She must, notwithstanding, have possessed an amazing fund of sagacity as well as valour. After an unparelled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her sovereign's head, she was taken prisoner by the English, in making a sally during the siege of Compiègne, who cruelly burnt her alive for being a reputed witch, at Rouën, May 30, 1431.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreements of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the English, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the English interest in France, and the loss of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithstanding the amazing courage of Talbot, the first earl of Shrewsbury, and their other officers. The great misfortune of England, at this time, was its disunion at home. The duke of Gloucester lost his authority in the government; and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily, a woman of a high spirit, but an implacable disposition; while the cardinal of Winchester, who was the richest subject in England, if not in Europe, presided at the head of the treasury, and by his avarice ruined the interest of the kingdom both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the most powerful subject. He was descended by the mother's side from Lionel, an elder son of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was descended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngest son; and he affected to keep up the distinction of a white rose, that of the house of Lancaster being red. He paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family; and lost no opportunity of forming a party to assert his right; but acted at first with a most profound dissimulation. The duke of Suffolk, a favourite of the queen, was a professed enemy to the duke of York; but being impeached in parliament, he was banished for five years, and had his head struck off on board a ship, by a common sailor. This was followed by an insurrection of 20,000 Kentish men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who sent to the court a list of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen seemed to be perfectly secure against the duke of York. The inglorious management of the English affairs in France befriended him; and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found

found a strong part of the nobility his friends; but being considered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he professed the most profound reverence to Henry.

The persons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Salisbury and his son the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greatest landed estate of any subject in England; and his vast abilities, joined to some virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and son were secretly on the side of York; and during a fit of illness of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both sides now prepared for arms; and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity, assembled an army; but the royalists were defeated in the first battle of St. Alban's, and the king himself taken prisoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom; but it was not long before the queen resumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakness became every day more and more visible, recovered all his authority.

On this event the duke of York threw off the mask, and, in 1459, openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the king-maker. A parliament being assembled, it was enacted that Henry should possess the throne for life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromise. She retreated northwards, and the king being still a prisoner, she pleaded his cause so well, that assembling a fresh army, she fought the battle of Wakefield in 1460, where the duke of York was defeated and slain.

It is remarkable, that, though the duke of York and his party openly asserted his claim to the crown, they still professed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's son, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the second battle of St. Alban's, she delivered her husband; but the disorders committed by her northern troops disgusted the Londoners so much, that she durst not enter London, where the duke of York was received, on the 28th of February 1461, while the queen and her husband were obliged to retreat northwards. She soon raised another army, and fought the battle of Towton, one of the most bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour performed on both sides, the victory remained with young Edward, near 40,000 men being left dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her husband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland,

where they met with generous protection. The war was renewed with greater animosity than any perhaps ever known, Margaret being as blood-thirsty as her opponents; so that when prisoners on either side were made, their deaths, especially if they were of any rank, being deferred only for a few hours.

The queen, by the concessions she made to the Scots, soon raised a fresh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at last her husband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried prisoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with and privately married Elizabeth the widow of Sir John Gray, though he had some time before sent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's sister in marriage, in which embassy he was successful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princess into England. When the secret of Edward's marriage was developed, the haughty earl, deeming himself affronted, returned to England, inflamed with rage and indignation, and, from being Edward's best friend, became his most formidable enemy. By gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made prisoner; but escaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick and the French king Lewis XI. declared for the restoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, Edward narrowly escaping to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he resumed the exercise of royal authority, made king Henry once more his prisoner, and defeated and killed Warwick in the battle of Barnet. A few days after he defeated a fresh army of Lancastrians, and made queen Margaret prisoner, together with her son prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Gloucester, murdered in cold blood, as he is said (but with no great appearance of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a prisoner in the Tower of London, a few days after. This happened in the year 1471.

Edward, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expences of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel, and sometimes to treat with France; but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the 23d year of his reign, and 42d of his age.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increased during the two preceding reigns. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of by the English, as the only means to preserve to themselves the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandise; but foreign influence prevented Henry's passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of printing, which

is generally supposed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor state in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and seems to have been the first English nobleman who cultivated what are now called the *belles lettres*. The books printed by Caxton are mostly re-translations, or compilations from the French or monkish Latin; but it must be acknowledged, at the same time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progress among the English than it did in any other European nation.

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had exercised her power with no great prudence, by having ennobled many of her obscure relations. Her eldest son, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle, the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to bastardise her issue, by act of parliament, under the scandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the same time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at last accepted the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having first put to death all the nobility and great men whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The most probable opinion is, that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the English were prepossessed so strongly against Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who still remained in France, carried on a secret correspondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends; and by offering to marry his eldest daughter, he was encouraged to invade England, at the head of about 2000 foreign troops; but they were soon joined by 7000 English and Welsh. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, ensued at Bosworth Field; in which Richard, after displaying most astonishing acts of personal valour, was slain, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army under Lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

It should be remarked, that though the same act of bastardy affected the daughters as well as the sons of the late king, yet no disputes arose upon the legitimacy of the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaster, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houses, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars

between the contending houses of York and Lancaster. Henry, however, rested his right upon conquest, and seemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the first who instituted that guard called *Yeomen*, which still subsists; and, in imitation of his predecessor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges assumed by the barons, in abolishing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could shelter himself from the law, on assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. The despotic court called the *Star-Chamber* owed its origin to Henry; but he passed many acts, especially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his subjects; and, as a finishing stroke to the feudal tenures, an act passed in his reign by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation. This, if we regard its consequences, is perhaps the most important act that ever passed in an English parliament, though its tendency seems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increase of trade, and the discovery of America, had, with irresistible force, prevailed in England; and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the estates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were gradually extinguished in England.

Henry, after encountering and surmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the possession of his throne by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, second son to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as such by the duchess of Burgundy, Edward's sister. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape along with the innocent earl of Warwick; for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. In 1499, Henry's eldest son, Arthur prince of Wales, was married to the princess Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain; and he dying soon after, such was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, two hundred thousand crowns of gold, that he consented to her being married again to his second son, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the first match had not been consummated. Soon after, Henry's eldest daughter, the princess Margaret, was sent with a most magnificent train to Scotland, where she was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was possessed of £1,800,000 sterling, which is equivalent to five millions at present; so that he may be supposed to have been master of more ready money than

than all the kings in Europe besides possessed, as the mines of Peru and Mexico were then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of replenishing his coffers, and often desired his parliament to grant him subsidies for foreign alliances which he intended not to pursue.

The vast alteration which happened in the constitution of England during Henry VII.'s reign has been already mentioned. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Maddox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle must have been prodigiously advanced before Henry's death. An instance of this is given in the case of lady Anne, sister to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week for her exhibition, sustentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; also for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight persons), £51 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and clothing; and for the maintenance of seven horses, £16 9s. 4d. i. e. for each horse, £2 7s. 0½d. yearly; money being still one and a half times as weighty as our modern coin. Wheat was at that time no more than 3s. 4d. a quarter, which answers to 5s. of our money; consequently, it was about twenty times as cheap as at present; so that, had all other necessities been equally cheap, she could have lived as well in those days on her allowance as at present on £2401 of our modern money.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the accession of Henry VIII. (1509) as in any European country, except Italy; and, perhaps, no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did, on the exercise of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe; but neglected those advantages in commerce with which his father became too lately acquainted. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent; and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conquest of all France. These projects, and his establishing what is properly called a *navy royal*, for the permanent defence of the nation, led him into incredible expences. He became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy; but soon resigned his pretensions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between those two princes, was directed by Wolsey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the interest of Charles; but finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare himself for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of

their expences, till at last he was forced to lay vast burdens upon his subjects.

At this period Henry continued the great enemy of the Reformation, and the champion of the Popes and the Romish church. He wrote a book against Luther, "*Of the Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521, for which the Pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, and which his successors retain to this day; but, about the year 1527, he began to have some scruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. It is not necessary to say how far on this occasion he might be influenced by scruples of conscience, aversion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the Pope. The difficulties he met with in this process ruined Wolsey, who died heart-broken, after being stript of his immense power and possessions.

At length a variety of circumstances induced Henry at last to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon the church of Rome, and to bring about the glorious Reformation; in which, however, many of the Romish errors and superstitions were retained. But Henry never could have effected this measure, had it not been for his despotic disposition, which broke out on every occasion. On a slight suspicion of his queen's inconstancy, after a sham trial, he caused her to be beheaded in the Tower, and put to death some of her nearest relations; and in many respects he acted in the most arbitrary manner; his wishes, however unreasonable, being too readily complied with, in consequence of the shameful servility of his parliaments. The dissolution of the religious houses, and the immense wealth that came to Henry by seizing all the ecclesiastical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full scope to his sanguinary disposition; so that the best and most innocent blood of England was shed on scaffolds, and seldom any long time passed without being marked with some illustrious victim of his tyranny. Among others was the aged countess of Salisbury, descended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, Lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correspondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but she died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, sister to the duke of Cleves. He disliked her so much, that he scarcely bedded with her; and obtaining a divorce, he suffered her to reside in England on a pension of £3000 a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whose head he cut off

off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His last wife was Catharine Parr, in whose possession he died, after she had narrowly escaped being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the Reformation.—Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on Protestants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surrey to death, without a crime being proved against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the next day, had he not been saved by Henry's own death, (1547) in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

In consequence of the art of printing, the state of England during the reign of Henry VIII. is better known than any part of his predecessors. His attention to the naval security of England was highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjust and arbitrary power he frequently assumed in many respects for the glory and interest of his subjects. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a pension to Erasmus, the most learned man of his age. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houses began to have an air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a constant and generous friend to Cranmer; and though more whimsical than settled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the instruments of a more pure reformation. In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in English: it was previously in Latin. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of King instead of Lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but 9 years of age at the time of his father's death; and, after some disputes were over, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle the earl of Hertford (afterwards the protector, and duke of Somerset), a declared friend and patron of the Reformation, and a bitter enemy to the see of Rome. The Reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, some of them foreign divines. But in some cases, particularly with regard to the princess Mary, they lost sight of that moderation which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some cruel sanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame; and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, and St. Thomas's hospitals, and also several schools, with that called Christ's Hospital, which still exist and flourish, shew the goodness of his heart. He died of a deep consumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and 7th of his reign.

This young prince, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstitutional will; for he set aside his sister Mary from the succession, which was claimed by Lady Jane Grey, daughter to the duchess of Suffolk, younger sister to Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognized the claim of princess Mary, who caused Lady Jane Grey to be beheaded. Her husband, Lord Guildford Dudley, son to the duke of Northumberland, also suffered in the same manner.

Mary being thus settled on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyatt, and proceeded like a fury to re-establish popery, which she did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from banishment, made him instrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illustrious confessors of the English reformed church, were consumed; a vast number of others of both sexes, and all ranks, also suffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner, bishop of London, and Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, were the chief executioners of her sanguinary mandates; and, had she lived, she would have endeavoured to exterminate all her Protestant subjects.

Philip II. of Spain, whom Mary espoused, was, like herself, an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praise of her reign is, that, by the marriage articles, provision was made for the independency of the English crown. By the assistance of troops which she furnished to her husband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the English in France, and which had been held ever since the reign of Edward III. This loss, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's secret connections with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign.—“In the heat of her persecuting flames,” says a contemporary writer of credit, “were burnt to ashes, one archbishop, four bishops, twenty-one divines, eight gentlemen, eighty-four artificers, and one hundred husbandmen, servants, and labourers; twenty-six wives, twenty widows, nine virgins, two boys, and two infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, springing out of the mother's womb from the stake as she burned, thrown again into the fire.” Several also died in prison, and many were otherwise cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, ascended the throne under the most discouraging circumstances both at home and abroad.

Popery

Popery was the established religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumstance attending her mother's marriage and death, was disputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VI.'s eldest daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally she had on the continent was Philip, king of Spain, who was the life of the Popish cause both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was only 25 years of age at the time of her accession; but her sufferings under her bigotted sister, joined to the superiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy; and she soon conquered all difficulties.

In matters of religion she succeeded with surprising facility; for in her first parliament, in 1559, the laws establishing Popery were repealed, her supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity passed soon after. And it is observed, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refused to comply with the Reformation. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend, her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, sent troops and money, which supported the Scotch malcontents till Mary's unhappy marriage with Lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the supposed murderer of the former, and her other misconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where she had often been promised a safe and honourable asylum. Elizabeth was most faithless to this profession of friendship; she detained the unhappy prisoner eighteen years in England, then brought her to a sham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without sufficient proof of her guilt, caused her to be beheaded; an action that greatly tarnishes the glory of her reign.

Philip, who had been the husband of her late sister, upon Elizabeth's accession to the throne, offered to marry her; but she dexterously avoided his addresses, and, by a train of skilful negotiations between her court and that of France, she kept the balance of Europe so undetermined that she had leisure to unite her people at home, and to establish an excellent internal policy in her dominions. She supported the Protestants of France against their persecuting princes and the Papists, and gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the strongest assurances that one or other of them should be her husband; by which she kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the same time in so good humour with her government, that it shewed no resentment when she ordered the death of queen Mary.

Philip, no longer to be imposed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amused and baffled him in

every quarter, now made use of the immense sums he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the most formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the best captain of that age: he procured a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. The largeness of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous in battle. The lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chased the Spanish fleet for several days; and the seas and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, few of the Spanish ships ever regaining their ports. Next to the admiral, Lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, Captains Hawkins and Frobisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion, in which the Spaniards are said to have lost 81 ships of war, large and small, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for some time supported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had sent them her favourite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leicester behaved ill, yet her measures were so wise, that the Dutch established their independency; and then she sent forth her fleets, under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, to the East and West Indies, whence they brought prodigious treasures, taken from the Spaniards, into England.

This princess, in her old age, grew distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, she teased him by her capriciousness into the madness of taking arms, and then caused him to be beheaded. Afterwards, she complained that she had been betrayed into this sanguinary measure; and this occasioned a sinking of her spirits, which brought her to her grave, in 1603, the 70th year of her age, and 45th of her reign; having previously named her kinsman, James VI. king of Scotland, and son to Mary, her successor.

We have here traced the great lines of Elizabeth's reign. She supported the Protestants in Germany against the house of Austria, of which Philip king of Spain was the head. She crushed the Papists in her own dominions for the same reason, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which state it has remained ever since. In 1600 the English East India Company received its first formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portuguese (in consequence of their having first discovered the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Vasco de Gama, in the reign of Henry VII.), who at that time were subjects of Spain; and factories were established in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

With

With respect to Elizabeth's internal government, it is admitted, that the successes of her reign have disguised it; for she was far from being a friend to personal liberty, and she was guilty of many stretches of power against the most sacred rights of Englishmen.

James's first attempt of consequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this, through the aversion of the English to that measure, on account of his loading his Scotch courtiers with wealth and honours, he shewed no violent resentment at the disappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increased by the discovery and defeat of the gunpowder treason. This was a scheme of the Roman Catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament; when it was also expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be present. The manner of enlisting any new conspirator was by oath, and administering the sacrament; and this dreadful secret, after being religiously kept near eighteen months, was happily discovered in the following manner. About ten days before the long wished for meeting of parliament, a Roman Catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his servant by an unknown hand, earnestly advising him to shift off his attendance in parliament at that time, but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he considered the letter as a foolish attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who, studying the contents with more attention, began to suspect some dangerous contrivance by gunpowder, and it was judged advisable to inspect all the vaults below the houses of parliament; but the search was purposely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a justice of peace was sent with the proper attendants; and before the door of the vault, under the upper house, finding one Fawkes, who had just finished all his preparations, he immediately seized him, and at the same time discovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for setting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whose countenance bespoke his savage disposition, and who, after regretting that he had lost the opportunity of destroying so many heretics, made a full discovery; and the conspirators, who never exceeded 80 in number, being seized by the country-people, confessed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithstanding this horrid crime, the bigoted Catholics were so devoted to Garnet, a Jesuit, one of the conspirators, that they fancied miracles to

be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was considered as a martyr.

James and his ministers were continually inventing new ways to raise money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he sold the titles of baron, viscount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay such a sum; and instituted a new order of knights-baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each person paid £1095.

His pacific reign was a series of theological contests with ecclesiastical casuists, in which he proved himself more a theologian than a prince; and in 1617 he attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland; but the zeal of the people baffled his design.

James gave his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector Palatine, the most powerful Protestant prince in Germany, and he soon after assumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abused for his tame behaviour after that prince had lost his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be observed, that he always opposed his son-in-law's assuming the crown of Bohemia; that, had he kindled a war to reinstate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have stood single in the same, excepting the feeble and uncertain assistance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. It is certain, however, that James furnished the elector with large sums of money to retrieve them; and that he actually raised a regiment of 2200 men under Sir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anspach, refused to second them against Spinola, the Spanish general.

James has been greatly and justly blamed for his partiality to favourites. Having lost his eldest son, Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popish match, he fixed upon the infanta of Spain as a proper wife for his son Charles, who had succeeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the son as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour; and, against the king's will, they travelled in disguise to Spain, where a most solemn farce of courtship was played; but the prince returned without his bride; and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Bristol, who was then ambassador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

He was perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not persuade to furnish money equal to his demands; and at last he agreed to his son's marrying the princess Henrietta Maria, sister to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France;

France. James died before the completion of this match. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of 22 years. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who restored the pure taste of architecture in England; and in his reign, poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, shone with great lustre. Mr. Middleton also, at this time, projected the bringing of water from Hertfordshire to London, and supplying the city with it by means of pipes. This canal is still called the *New River*.

Charles succeeded his father; but the death of the duke of Buckingham, the king's favourite, who was assassinated by one Felton, a subaltern officer, in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the English patriots in that enlightened age justly considered as so many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impositions upon trade, which were refused to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the House of Commons. Some of them were imprisoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The House of Commons resented these proceedings by drawing up a protest, and denying admittance to the gentleman-usher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finished. This served only to widen the breach, and the king dissolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations against nine of the most eminent members, among whom was the great Selden, who was as much distinguished by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the jurisdiction of the court; but their plea was over-ruled, and they were sent to prison during the king's pleasure.

A variety of circumstances now operated towards the destruction of Charles. The Commons would vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances; upon which Charles, presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not at all, understood, levied money upon monopolies of salt, soap, and such necessities, and other obsolete claims, particularly for knighthood; and raised various taxes without authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton a divine, Prynne a lawyer, and Bastwick a physician, men of neither eminence or abilities, but warm and resolute, published several pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained some severe strictures against the ruling clergy. They were prosecuted for these pieces in the star-chamber, in a very arbitrary and cruel manner, and punished with so much rigour, as excited an almost universal indignation against the authors of their sufferings. Thus was the go-

vernment rendered still more odious; and, unfortunately for Charles, he put his conscience into the hands of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himself, both in church and state. Laud advised him to prosecute the Puritans, and, in the year 1637, to introduce episcopacy into Scotland. The Scots, upon this, formed secret connections with the discontented English, and invaded England in August 1640, where Charles was so ill served by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots, who made themselves masters of Newcastle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the House of Commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, president of the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed to be the first minister of state. Strafford had been a leading member of the opposition to the court; but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himself so vigorously, in carrying the king's despotic schemes into execution, that he became an object of public detestation. As lord president of the North, as lord lieutenant of Ireland, and as a minister and privy-councillor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injustice and oppression. He was in consequence, at length, on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much against the inclination of the king, who was, in a manner, forced by the parliament and people to sign the warrant for his execution. Archbishop Laud was also beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a considerable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645. In the 4th year of his reign, Charles had passed the *Petition of Right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament as the future security of the liberty of the subject. It established particularly, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous instances, so that an universal discontent at his administration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion also broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641, where the Protestants, without distinction of age, sex, or condition, to the amount of many thousands, were massacred by the Papists; and great pains were taken to persuade the public that Charles secretly favoured them out of hatred to his English subjects. The bishops were expelled the House of Peers, on account of their constantly opposing the designs and bills of the other house; and the leaders of the English House of Commons still kept up a correspondence with the discontented Scots.

Scots. Charles was imprudently advised to go in person to the House of Commons, January 4, 1642, and there demanded that Lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, Sir Arthur Haslerig, and Mr. Stroud, should be apprehended; but they had previously made their escape. This act of Charles was resented as high treason against his people; and the Commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them.

A civil war now broke out, through the dissensions of the two parties, and after many battles, in which the king was worsted, the army avowed their intentions. They first by force took Charles out of the hands of the commissioners, June 4, 1647; and then dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned 41 of the Presbyterian members, voted the House of Peers to be useless, and that of the Commons was reduced to 150, most of them officers of the army. In the mean while, Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissensions, was carried from prison to prison, and sometimes cajoled by the Independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were set on foot, but all miscarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an escape, to put himself into Colonel Hammand's hands, the parliament's governor of the Isle of Wight. A fresh negotiation was begun, and almost finished, when the Independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, and strongly persuaded of the insincerity of the king, once more seized upon his person, brought him prisoner to London, carried him before a court of justice of their own erecting, and, after an extraordinary trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace, at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues; and some have supposed that affliction had taught him so much wisdom and moderation, that, had he been restored to his throne, he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reason to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the last, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been reinstated in power. The surviving children of Charles were Charles and James, who were successively kings of England; Henry duke of Gloucester, who died soon after his brother's restoration; the princess Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William, prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England; and the princess Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whose daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

Those who brought Charles to the block were

men of different persuasions and principles; but many of them possessed very extraordinary abilities for government. They omitted no measure that could give a perpetual exclusion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied that after they erected themselves into a commonwealth, they made very successful exertions for retrieving the glory of England by sea. They were joined by many of the Presbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards against the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber on the royal domains, they produced a fleet superior to any that had ever been seen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland; and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worcester. The same commonwealth passed an act of navigation; and declaring war against the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible by sea, they effectually humbled those republicans in repeated engagements.

Cromwell, who hated subordination to a parliament, had the address to get himself declared commander in chief of the English army. Admiral Blake, and the other English admirals, carried the terror of the English name by sea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten; for which reason he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 musqueteers, and dissolved the parliament, opprobriously driving all the members (about 100) out of the house. He next annihilated the council of state, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration of government to about 140 persons whom he summoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the English were again victorious, still continued. Seven bloody engagements by sea were fought in little more than the compass of one year; and in the last, which was decisive in favour of England, the Dutch lost their brave admiral, Van Tromp. Cromwell all this time, it is said, wanted to be declared king; but perceiving that he must encounter insurmountable difficulties if he should persist in his resolution, he was satisfied with being declared *Lord Protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exercised all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more despotically in some respects than he did; yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends. After a most uncomfortable usurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It must be confessed, that this nation acquired much greater respect from foreign powers between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than she had been treated with since the time of Elizabeth. In 1656 the charge of the public amounted to £1,300,000, of which £1,000,000 was required for the services of the army and navy, and the surplus for that of the civil government. About the same period Cromwell abolished several grievances which had been complained of during the former reigns; and upon the whole, it appears that during this period England was improved equally in opulence and power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a certain indication of increasing commerce. Monopolies of all kinds were abolished; and liberty of conscience to all sects was granted, to the incalculable benefit of commerce and manufactures; the intolerant spirit of Laud having driven numbers of artisans to America and other foreign parts.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who succeeded his father Oliver as protector, sufficiently proves the great difference there was between them, as to spirit and parts, in the affairs of government. Richard was placed in his dignity by those who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and he was soon after driven, without the least struggle or opposition, into obscurity; and Charles II. was restored by General Monk, who commanded the army.

Charles II. in 1660, the first year of his reign, seemed to have a real desire to promote his people's happiness. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the excise for life; and in this act coffee and tea are first mentioned. By his long residence, and that of his friends, abroad, he imported into England the culture of many useful vegetables; such as that of asparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and several kinds of beans, peas, and salads. Under him Jamaica, which had been conquered by the English under the auspices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a sugar colony; the Royal Society was instituted; and many popular acts respecting trade and colonization were passed. In short, Charles knew and cultivated the true interests of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleasure, and sunk in indolence, failings that had the same consequences as despotism itself. He appeared to interest himself in the sufferings of his citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666; and its being rebuilt with greater lustre and conveniences, is a proof of the increase of her trade; but there were no bounds to Charles's love of pleasure, which led him into the most extravagant expences. He has been severely censured for selling Dunkirk to the French king, to supply his necessities, after he had squandered

the immense sums granted him by parliament. The price was about £250,000 sterling. But, even in this, his conduct was more defensible than in his secret connexions with France, which were of the most scandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom; and such as must ever reflect infamy on his memory.

Charles died, February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 26th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, with whom he received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters are now amongst the most distinguished of the British nobility.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarse and indelicate. The court was a nursery of vice, and the stage exhibited scenes of impurity. Some readers were found, who could admire Milton as well as Dryden; and never, perhaps, were the pulpits of England so well supplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural; and the days of Charles may be called the Augustan age of mathematics and natural philosophy. Charles loved and understood the arts more than he encouraged or rewarded them, especially those of English growth; but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedness, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the first English prince who formed a body of standing forces, as guards to his person, it ought to be remembered, at the same time, that he carried the art of ship-building to the highest perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its finest improvements to his and his brother's knowledge of naval affairs and architecture. As to his religion, James, soon after his death, published to the world, that his brother, notwithstanding his repeated professions of regard to the Protestant faith, was a Papist, and died such; of which there are now incontestible proofs. All the opposition which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne, seems to have vanished at the accession of James II. The popular affection towards him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almost ruined Protestantism. The army and the people supported him in crushing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful son of Charles II. and as such had assumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, July 15, 1685, and some hundreds of his followers hanged,

hanged, drawn, and quartered, in the west of England, by the instrumentality of Judge Jefferies and Colonel Kirke, whose barbarity and cruelties almost exceed credibility, and which rendered James's government very unpopular; added to this, he desperately resolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-resistance. He sent an embassy to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people are almost beyond description, being disapproved of by the pope himself, and all moderate Roman Catholics. His sending to prison, and prosecuting for a libel, seven bishops for presenting a petition against reading his declaration respecting liberty of conscience, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his best friends. But he had already gone too far; for many great men in England and Scotland, perceiving his views on the established religion, and fearful of the recurrence of the tragical times of persecution exhibited in the preceding century, applied for relief to William, prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. This prince was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married the princess Mary, that king's eldest daughter; after some delay, he at last embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore the church and state to their true rights. On his arrival, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter, the princess Anne, and her husband, George prince of Denmark, left him, and joined the prince of Orange. Nevertheless, James might still have reigned: but he was surrounded with French emissaries and bigoted Jesuits, who instigated him to persist in restoring popery. But finding the principal persons in the realm espousing the cause of William, they secretly persuaded him to send his queen, and son, then but six months old, to France, and to follow them in person—which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in our history is termed the *Revolution*.

King William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was spent in an almost uninterrupted course of hostilities with that power, which were supported by England, at an expence she had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two last reigns; and he gave his consent to the *Bill of Rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and secured.

The influence of religion and political liberty may be justly illustrated by this revolution. It was the just sense the people of England had of

their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke them to agree to the late revolution; for they never, in other respects, had been at so high a pitch of wealth and prosperity as in the year 1688, when James abdicated his throne. The tonnage of their merchant ships, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was that year nearly double what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which in 1660 was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increased to 101,032 tons. The increase of the customs, and the annual rental of England was in the same proportion. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being successful, required an enormous expence; and the Irish continued, in general, faithful to James. But many English, who wished well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being restored by conquest; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne against James, who there lost all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France proved superior to that of England in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invasions were threatened, and conspiracies discovered, every day against the government, and the supply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, and every subject's lands were taxed, according to the valuations given in by the several counties. Those who were the most loyal gave the highest valuations, and were the heaviest taxed; and this preposterous burden continued: but the greatest and boldest operation in finances that ever took place was established in this reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon the parliamentary securities, and which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projector of this scheme is said to have been Charles Montague, afterwards Lord Halifax. His principal argument for such a project was, that it would oblige the monied part of the nation to befriend the Revolution interest, because, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by supporting that interest, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious.

King William, however, notwithstanding the vast service he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auspices, particularly in the establishment of the Bank of England, and the re-coining the silver money, met with so many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually resolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a speech for that purpose, which he was prevailed upon to suppress. He long bore the affronts he met with, in hopes of being supported in his war with France; but at last, in 1697, he

was forced to conclude the peace of Ryswick, with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. William at this period lost his queen, who died of the small-pox, in the 32d year of her age; but the government was continued in his person. On the restoration of peace the Commons obliged him to disband his army, except an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of seeing the whole Spanish monarchy in possession of France at the death of the Catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic measure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houses of Bourbon and Austria. This treaty was highly resented by the parliament, and some of his ministry were impeached for advising it. It was thought William saw his error when it was too late. His ministers were acquitted from their impeachment; and the death of king James discovered the insincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his son king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houses passed the bill of abjuration, and an address for a war with France. The last and most glorious act of William's reign was his passing the bill for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover, on the 12th of June, 1701. His death was hastened by a fall from his horse, soon after he had renewed the grand alliance against France, on the 8th of March, 1702, in the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England.

This prince was not formed for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; and he seemed also sometimes almost to lose sight of those principles of liberty, for the support of which he had been raised to the throne. The rescue and preservation of religion and public liberty were indeed the chief glory of William's reign; for England under him suffered severely both by sea and land; and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to the then unheard of sum of £14,000,000.

On William's demise, Anne, princess of Denmark, by virtue of the act of settlement, and being the next Protestant heir to her father James II. succeeded to the throne. As she had been ill-treated by the late king, it was thought she would have deviated from his measures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has since been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice: and she resolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been imprisoned in the late reign on a suspicion of Jacobitism, and whose wife was her favourite, as her general. She

could not have made a better choice of a general and statesman; for that earl excelled in both capacities. No sooner was he placed at the head of the English army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in consequence of the intrigues of France, and at the same time resenting the partition treaty, to which his consent had not been asked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Angou, grandson of Louis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain; which laid the foundation of the family alliance between France and that nation. Philip's succession was disputed by the second son of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himself the title of Charles III. and his cause was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy against the house of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquisition of the whole Spanish dominions.

The continuance of the war against France being determined on, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her ministry, who were, for the most part, Tories; and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading Whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treasury. His son had married the earl of Marlborough's eldest daughter; and the earl could trust no other with that important department.

During this war, several glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was made duke of Marlborough. Those of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the first effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim, in 1704, the empire of Germany was saved from immediate destruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confessedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken prisoner, and sent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, besides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the same time, the English admiral, Sir George Rooke, reduced Gibraltar, which still remains in our possession. The battle of Ramillies, in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loss of the enemy there has been variously reported; it is generally supposed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken prisoners: but the consequences shewed its importance.

After the last mentioned action, the states of Flanders,

Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognized Charles for their sovereign; while the confederates took possession of Louvain, Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and several other considerable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde (1708), where they lost 3000 on the field, and about 7000 taken prisoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, after a bloody action, in which the French lost 15,000 men. These flattering successes of the English were balanced, however, by great misfortunes.

The queen had sent a very fine army to assist Charles III. in Spain, under the command of Lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though some advantages were obtained at sea; yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the disgrace, of England. Prince George of Denmark, husband to the queen, was then lord high admiral. England also felt severely the scarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

Louis XIV. now professed a readiness for peace, and sued earnestly for it, and the Whigs at last gave way to a treaty, the conferences for which were held at Gertruydenburg in 1710. They were conducted on the part of the English by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townshend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. But all the offers of the latter were rejected by the duke and his associates, as only designed to amuse and divide the allies; and the war was continued.

It is remarkable, that we have almost in every period of our history been unfortunate in our choice of negotiators. The unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg, and the then expected change of ministry in England, saved France; and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war, in the end, if continued, must prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that "the church was in danger," which, though groundless, had great effects; and Sacheverel, an ignorant preacher, espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the ridiculous impracticable doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance. Hence it was agreed by both parties to try their strength in this man's cause. He was impeached by the Commons, and found guilty by the Lords, who passed upon him only a very small censure. After this trial, the queen's affec-

tions were entirely alienated from the duchess of Marlborough and the Whig administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by Tories; and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a cessation of arms: but they were disregarded by the queen's allies in the British pay. The removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greatest imprudence, and excited the astonishment of all Europe; for so numerous had been his successes, and so great his reputation, that his very name commanded success. But the honour and interest of the nation were sacrificed to private court intrigues.

In January, 1712, conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The rest of the queen's life was rendered uneasy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her ministers. The Whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and she was obliged hastily to dismiss her lord-treasurer, when she fell into a lethargic disorder, which carried her off the 1st of August, 1714, in the 50th year of her age, and 13th of her reign.

With her ended the line of the Stuarts, who, from the accession of James I. anno 1603, had swayed the sceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years from the accession of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, son of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's decease, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germain's, and for some time treated as such by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He resided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romish faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two sons, viz. Charles Edward, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death repaired to Rome, where he continued for some time, and afterwards resided at Florence, under the title of Count Albany, till his death; Henry, his second son, was cardinal in the church of Rome, and was known by the name of Cardinal York: he died in 1807.

At the death of Anne the national debt was about fifty millions. She had no strength of mind, by herself, to carry any important resolve into execution; and she left public measures in so indecisive a state, that, upon her death, the succession took place in the terms of the act of settlement; and George I. elector of Hanover, son of the

the princess Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Great Britain; his mother, who would have been next in succession, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with strong prepossessions against the Tory ministry, most of whom he displaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England. Many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were, however, driven into rebellion, in 1715, which was suppressed the beginning of the next year.

George I. though a sagacious moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too subservient to his continental connections, which were various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muscovy about their German concerns; and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden, been killed so critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by that northern conqueror, great preparations being made for that purpose; he being incensed at George, as elector of Hanover, for purchasing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718 George quarrelled with Spain, on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed between Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States General; and his admiral, Sir George Byng, by his orders, destroyed the Spanish fleet at Syracuse. A trifling war with Spain then commenced; but it was soon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

The Jacobites attempted to avail themselves of the national discontent at the South Sea scheme, which was at this time exploded, and England's connections with the continent, which every day increased. Lyster, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treason. Several persons of great quality and distinction were apprehended, on suspicion; but the chief sufferer was Francis Atterbury, lord bishop of Rochester, who was deprived of his see and seat in parliament, and banished for life.

In September, 1725, a fresh treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Prussia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A squadron was sent to the Baltic, to hinder the Russians from attacking Sweden; another to the Mediterranean; and a third, under admiral Hosier, to the West Indies, to watch the Spanish plate-fleets. This last was a fatal expedition: the admiral and most of his men perished by epidemical diseases, and the hulks of his ships rotted so as to render them unfit for service. The Spaniards also lost about 10,000 men in the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise.

A quarrel with the emperor of Russia was most

dangerous to Hanover; and though an opposition in the House of Commons was formed by Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more lavish in granting money and subsidies, for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. This was the state of affairs in Europe, when George I. suddenly died, on the 11th of June, 1727, at Osnaburg, in the 68th year of his age, and 13th of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for an incredible number of cheating and speculative projects, by which almost a million and a half was won and lost; and for the great alteration of the system of Europe, by the concern which the English took in the affairs of the continent.

Sir Robert Walpole was considered as first minister of England when George I. died; and no minister ever understood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, trust, and profit, and almost the House of Commons itself, with his own creatures; but peace was his object, because he thought that war must be fatal to his power. During his long administration he never lost a question that he was in earnest to carry. The excise scheme was the first measure that gave a shock to his power; and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the spirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an insurrection, or endangered his interest in the next general election. He soon, however, experienced serious inconveniences from his system; for many of the great peers thought themselves slighted, and they interested themselves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the disgust of the people at the proposed excise scheme, and passing the *Gin Act*, in the year 1736, increased the minority in the House of Commons to 130; some of whom were as able men, and as good speakers, as had ever sat in parliament; and, taking advantage of the increasing complaints against the Spaniards, they attacked the minister with great strength of argument, and with great eloquence. In justice to Walpole, it should be observed, that he filled the courts of justice with able and upright judges; nor was he ever known to attempt any perversion of the laws of the kingdom. He was so far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the most scurrilous abuse that was thrown out against him. He gave way to a few prosecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themselves affected by them; but it is certain, that the press of England never was more free than during his administration.

Queen Caroline, consort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the minister; but she died
November

November 20th, 1737, when a variance subsisted between the king and his son, the prince of Wales, father of his present majesty. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the provision to which his birth entitled him; and he put himself at the head of the opposition with so much firmness, that it was generally foreseen Walpole's power was drawing to a crisis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the minister, was sent, in 1739, with a squadron of six ships to the West Indies, where he took and demolished Porto Bello; but being a violent intractable man, he miscarried in his other attempts, especially that upon Carthagena, in which some thousands of British lives were sacrificed. The opposition exulted in Vernon's success, and afterwards imputed his miscarriages to the minister's starving the war, by withholding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, so prevalent was the interest of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyll in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the minister; and, after a few trying divisions, he retired from the house, on the 9th of February 1742, was created earl of Orford, and on the 11th resigned all his employments.

At this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic sanction (which meant the succession of his daughter to all the Austrian dominions), through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent causes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by Lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able but headstrong minister, whom George had made his secretary of state, and, indeed, by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himself at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743; but would not suffer his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, which was thought to proceed from tenderness for his electoral dominions.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expensive war both against the French and Spaniards; and her enemies thought to avail themselves of the general discontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, was represented by some to exceed the bounds of decency. This naturally suggested to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who resided at Rome; and he agreed that his son Charles, who was a sprightly young man, should repair to France, from whence he set sail, and narrowly escaped with a few followers, in a frigate, to the western coasts of Scotland, between the islands of Mull and Sky, where he discovered

himself, assembled his followers; and published a manifesto exciting the nation to a rebellion.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the West Indies, through the fatal divisions between Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that about 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perished in the impracticable attempt on Carthagena, and by the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been spent in negociations with the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, which, though expensive, proved of little or no service to Great Britain; so that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the same situation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Lestock had given an opportunity to the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with but little loss; and soon after, the French, who had before only acted as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war against the French. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himself the command of the army, the French were almost masters of the barrier of the Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raise the siege; but, by the coldness of the Austrians, and the cowardice of the Dutch, whose government all along held a secret correspondence with France, he lost the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his best men; though it is generally allowed that his dispositions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, Admiral Anson returned this year to England with an immense treasure (about a million sterling) which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and Commodore Warren, with Colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortress of Louisbourg, in the island of Cape Breton.

During this state of affairs abroad, in August 1745, the Pretender's eldest son, at the head of some Highland followers, surprised and disarmed a party of the king's troops in the western Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. The government never so thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the support of the Revolution. The French and the Jacobite party (for such there was at that time in England) had laid a deep scheme of distressing the Bank; but common danger abolished all distinctions, and united them in the defence of one interest, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their address to the king, to support it by receiving bank-notes in payment. This seasonable measure saved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not restore tranquillity

tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, son-in-law to his majesty George II. was, by the credit of his majesty, and the spirit of the people of the United Provinces, raised to be their stadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maestricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made prisoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been explained. The allies suffered other disgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was necessary to save the duke and his army from total destruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the English at sea, under the command of the admirals Anson, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the English arms were not so successful as could have been wished under Rear-Admiral Boscawen in the East Indies. In this state of affairs, the successes of the French and English during the war may be said to have been balanced, and both ministers turned their thoughts to peace.

The preliminaries for peace were signed in April, 1748; and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October, the basis of which was the restitution on both sides of all places taken during the war. The next year the interest of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for seven years, after which the whole was to stand reduced to three per cent. This was the boldest stroke of finance that ever was attempted, perhaps in any country, consistently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a small ineffectual opposition, continued their money in the funds; and a few who sold out, even made interest to have it replaced on the same security, or were paid off their principal sums out of the sinking fund.

A new treaty of commerce was signed at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in consideration of £100,000, the South Sea Company gave up all their future claims to the assiento contract, by virtue of which that company had supplied the Spanish West Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died his royal highness Frederic prince of Wales. In May, 1751, an act passed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old style was abolished, and the new style established, to the vast convenience of the subjects. This was done by sinking 11 days in September, 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the first of January. In 1753 the famous act passed for preventing clandestine marriages.

The open encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back settlements in America, and the dispositions they made for sending over vast bodies of veteran troops to support those encroach-

ments, produced a wonderful spirit in England, especially after Admiral Boscawen was ordered, with 11 ships of the line, besides a frigate and two regiments, to sail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with and took two French men of war, the rest of their fleet escaping up the river St. Lawrence, by the Straits of Belleisle. No sooner was it known that hostilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were issued for making general reprisals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ships, whether outward or homeward bound, should be stopped, and brought into British ports. These orders were so effectual, that, before the end of the year 1755, above 500 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8000 of their best sailors, were brought into the kingdom.

As the spirits of the public were elevated by the formidable armaments which were prepared for carrying on the war, they were depressed by an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip there; that Admiral Byng, who had been sent out with a squadron at least equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their Admiral Galissopiere, and that at last Minorca was surrendered by General Blakeney. The public outcry on this event was such, that Byng was delivered up to public justice, and he was shot at Portsmouth for not doing all that was in his power against the enemy.

About this time Mr. Pitt (the late earl of Chatham) was placed, as secretary of state, at the head of administration. He had long been known to be a bold, eloquent, and energetic speaker, and he soon proved himself to be as spirited a minister. The miscarriages in the Mediterranean had no consequence but the loss of Fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vast successes of the English privateers, both in Europe and America. The successes of the English in the East Indies, under Colonel Clive, seem almost incredible, and laid the foundation of the great extent of territory which the English now possess in the East Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new system of operations against France, than which nothing could be better calculated to restore the spirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invasion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itself; and the descent was to be made at Rochefort, under General Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promising than the dispositions for this expedition. It sailed on the 8th of September 1757; but Admiral Hawke brought both the sea and land forces back, on the 6th of October, to St.

Helen's.

Helen's, without any attempt having been made to land on the coast of France. The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a most powerful army, the English parliament voted large supplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been sent thither to command an army of observation, but was so powerfully pressed by a superior army, that he found himself obliged to lay down his arms; and the French, under the duke of Richelieu, took possession of that electorate and its capital. At this time, a scarcity, next to a famine, raged in England; and the Hessian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been sent to defend the kingdom from an invasion threatened by the French, remained still in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majesty and the king of Prussia; in consequence of which, the parliament voted £670,000 to his Prussian majesty; and also large sums, amounting in the whole to nearly two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse Cassel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbüttele, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards so burdensome to England, was intended to unite the Protestant interest in Germany.

George II. with the consent of his Prussian majesty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Closterseven, ordered his Hanoverian subjects to resume their arms, under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, a Prussian general, who instantly drove the French out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the English had repeatedly insulted the French coasts, by destroying their stores and shipping at St. Malo and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. A war ensued, in the course of which the English every where performed wonders, and were every where victorious; but nothing decisive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the most glorious, perhaps, in the English annals, in which about 7000 English defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops, contributed not at all to the conclusion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The war was continued with the most signal success on our part. At sea the French were every where defeated; while by land we reduced the whole of Canada, in North America, and this vast territory has ever since been under our subjection.

The war in Germany, however, continued still as undecided as it was expensive. The French shewed repeatedly dispositions for treating; and

the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little less than £18,000,000 sterling yearly, inclined the British minister to listen to their proposals. A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but, on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died suddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart), full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was succeeded by his grandson, now George III. eldest son to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehensible only for his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could admit that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was sometimes advised to declare so much in his speeches to parliament. In government he had no favourite; for he parted with Sir Robert Walpole with great indifference, and shewed very little concern at the subsequent revolutions among his servants. In his personal disposition he was passionate but placable, fearless of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he served when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary course of justice; and though his reign was distracted by party, the courts of justice were never better filled than under him.

His present Majesty George III. ascended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour; he was in the bloom of youth; in his person tall and comely; and at the time of his accession Great Britain was in the highest degree of reputation and prosperity, and the most salutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The first acts of his reign seemed also calculated to convince the public that the death of his predecessor should not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the island of Belleisle, on the coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces under Commodore Keppel and General Hodgson; as did the important fortress of Pondicherry, in the East Indies, to Colonel Coote and Admiral Stevens. The operations against the French West Indies still continued under General Monkton, Lord Rollo, and Sir James Douglas; and in 1762, the island of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the islands of Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and others of less note, were subdued by the British arms with inconceivable rapidity.

As his majesty could not espouse a Roman Catholic, he was prevented from intermarrying into any of the great families of Europe; he therefore chose a wife from the house of Mecklenburg Strelitz.

Strelitz, the head of a small but sovereign state in the north-west of Germany; and the conduct of his excellent consort has been such as most highly to justify his choice. She was conveyed to England in great pomp, and the nuptials were celebrated on the very night of her arrival, viz. September 8, 1761; and on the 22d of the same month the ceremony of the coronation was performed with great magnificence in Westminster-abbey.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such eminent ability, and who had received the best information of the hostile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed in council an immediate declaration of war against that kingdom. But he was over-ruled in this assembly, all the members of which declared themselves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in-law, Earl Temple. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was supposed that the earl of Bute, who had a considerable share in directing the education of the king, had acquired an ascendancy in the royal favour. Mr. Pitt, however, said, "that as he was called to the ministry by the voice of the people, to whom he considered himself as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a situation which made him responsible for measures that he was not allowed to guide." He therefore resigned the seals, and Lord Temple also gave up the post which he held in the administration. But the next day the king settled a pension of £3000 a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the same time a title was conferred upon his lady and her issue; and the pension was to be continued for three lives.

The war still continued to be carried on with vigour after the resignation of Mr. Pitt, and the plans were pursued that he had previously concerted. It was at length also found indispensably necessary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being generally known; and accordingly war was declared against that kingdom, on the 14th of January, 1762. A respectable armament was fitted out under Admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the result was the reduction of the Havannah, the strongest and most important fort which his Catholic majesty held in the West Indies, after a siege of two months and eight days. The capture of the *Hermione*, a large Spanish register ship, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million sterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treasure passed in triumph through Westminster to the Bank in the very hour he was born. The loss of the Havannah, with the ships and treasures

there taken from the Spaniards, was succeeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippine islands in the East Indies, under General Draper and Admiral Cornish, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract these dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards employed their last resource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had always been under the peculiar protection of the British arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, it is not easy to decide; it certainly embarrassed his Britannic majesty, who was obliged to send thither armaments both by sea and land.

The negotiations for peace were now resumed; and the enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate on the occasion. The defection of the Russians from the confederacy against the king of Prussia, and his consequent successes, produced a cessation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal.

By this treaty England received Florida in exchange for the Havannah; retained Cape Breton, Tobago, Dominica, St. Vincent, and the Grenadas, and Senegal on the coast of Africa; but restored all her other conquests. Her national debt, at the conclusion of this war, commonly called the seven years war, amounted to about one hundred and forty-eight millions, of which the interest was nearly five.

After the treaty of Paris, England enjoyed a peace of fifteen years; but this period was far from revolving without many domestic disquietudes. The young king was attacked, immediately on his ascending the throne, with a cry of favouritism, levelled at the earl of Bute, a nobleman of taste and science, and peculiarly in his confidence. In reality, this was a struggle between the crown and the aristocracy. It was a struggle from which, to all appearance, many subsequent misfortunes arose, and which must always be unpleasant; but it was a struggle resulting from the very essence of the British constitution. When such struggles cease, that constitution is no more. The earl of Bute was no otherwise obnoxious than as he was chosen minister in preference to one which a party would have forced on the crown; but this attempt to force a minister on the crown, and this resistance of the attempt, are alike constitutional, and alike necessary to the preservation of public liberty. The imposition of a tax on cider at length effected the overthrow of Lord Bute, who was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville.

Grenville. Under this gentleman's administration, the rage of party displayed itself in papers and pamphlets. Among these was a periodical paper, called the *North Briton*, the production of John Wilkes, Esq. then member for Aylesbury. It owed its name to the antipathy of its author to Scotland, the country of the earl of Bute. In the forty-fifth number of this paper, the king's speech to parliament was attacked with very indecent freedom. A general warrant was issued, for taking up the authors, printers, and publishers of the paper. Mr. Wilkes was committed to the Tower of London, but released by the court of Common Pleas, on the ground that the privilege of parliament extended to the case of writing a libel. The House of Commons resolved that it did not. Several innocent persons were apprehended at the same time; but they afterwards brought their actions against the messengers who had seized them, and recovered considerable damages. Mr. Wilkes, also, brought actions against the secretaries of state, for false imprisonment; but not appearing to the indictments preferred against him, for publishing the *North Briton*, he became an outlaw, and of course unable to maintain them. In the month of January, 1764, he was expelled the House of Commons. A considerable benefit accrued to the nation from this struggle; both houses of parliament afterwards declaring general warrants, or warrants the particular object of which is not described, to be illegal.

The year following was marked by the first kindling of the feud, which afterwards broke out between England and her American colonies. In her defence of those colonies, during the war of 1746, considerable sums of money had necessarily been expended. It was reasonable that these sums should be reimbursed, in part at least, by the colonists. To this they had not objected, but they resisted upon the right of levying them by their own authority. At the beginning of hostilities, commissioners from many of them had assembled at Albany, and proposed that a great council should be formed by deputies from each, and which, with a general governor, to be appointed by the crown, should be empowered to take measures for their common safety, and raise the needful supplies. This proposition was not attended to by the English government, which offered a counter-project, the plan of which was to intrust those powers to governors of the colonies, with one or two of their council; to authorize those persons to draw on the royal treasury for the monies that might be wanted, and to reimburse the treasury by a tax or taxes on the colonies, to be levied by authority of the parliament at home. The right of parliament to tax the colonies was what the colonists totally denied; they therefore

rejected this proposition; and the war was carried on by occasional requisitions on the colonies, for men and money, or by voluntary contributions. From this mode there resulted considerable irregularity, and very unequal burdens; in some of the colonies, exertions so far beyond their reasonable quota, that they deserved reimbursement; in others, there were delays, and even refusals. Mr. Pitt, it will be recollected, was then secretary of state; and he is said to have told Mr. Franklin, "That when the war closed, if he should be in the ministry, he would take measures to prevent the colonies from having the power to refuse or delay the supplies that might be wanted for national purposes." To execute these measures unfortunately fell to the lot of Mr. Grenville. The importance into which the colonies had grown, unquestionably pointed out the necessity of establishing the government upon a more solid basis than it had hitherto enjoyed. Probably, the most desirable plan would have been that of a perfect union, giving seats in the lower house of parliament to representatives of the colonies, and raising their more opulent commoners to the upper; but a desire to maintain the colonial system, induced the English government to persist in defending the right of parliament to levy taxes, and in many other respects to treat the Americans in a manner to which it could hardly be expected any people would submit, which had the power to resist.

In the month of March, 1765, parliament passed the stamp act, in which it was enacted, that certain instruments of writing, as bills, bonds, &c. should not be valid, unless they were drawn on stamped paper, on which a duty was laid; and the publication of this act in America, led to the decisive declaration, on the part of the burgesses of Virginia, "That those were enemies to their country, who should, by writing or speaking, maintain that any person or persons, other than the general assembly of that colony, had any right or power to impose taxes on the people." This was followed by inflammatory writings, and public disturbance, in the other states; and, in 1766, the stamp-act was repealed.

In 1767, the act of repeal excited considerable joy in London; but it obtained the name of the Declaratory Act, from a passage which denied the *principle* for which the Americans contended; declaring, "That parliament had, and of right ought to have, power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever;" and in exercise of this right, in 1767, under the administration of Mr. Charles Townsend, a bill was passed for granting duties in the British colonies, on glass, paper, painters' colours, and tea. This act excited the same opposition as the former, and was subsequently abandoned, except in so far as related to the duty on the

the article last mentioned : and when some ships laden with that article arrived at Boston, the citizens emptied their cargoes into the sea. This proceeding so enraged the English government, that an act was passed for shutting up the port of Boston, which produced violent remonstrances on their part. A short time previously to this, an act had also been passed, enjoining the colonies to furnish the troops with necessaries in their quarters : the colony of New-York refused to obey it ; the colony was restrained from making any laws, while it continued disobedient ; and to this measure it replied, by coming to severe resolutions against the importation of European, by which it obviously intended British, commodities.

In 1768, while the government and its colonies were thus struggling for power, parties at home were in a similar state of hostility. New ministers, as has been seen, by the occurrence of new names, rapidly succeeded each other. At a general election, Mr. Wilkes, who had remained an outlaw ever since the year 1762, was, on his return to England, elected for the county of Middlesex. Having next surrendered himself, and obtained a reversal of his outlawry, he was sentenced to imprisonment, in the King's Bench prison, during two years, and fined in the sum of one thousand pounds. On the meeting of parliament, a considerable number of persons assembled in the neighbourhood of the prison ; behaved in a disorderly manner ; and, not dispersing after the riot-act had been read, were fired upon by the military. Several were slightly wounded, two or three seriously, and one killed on the spot. Lord Weymouth, one of the secretaries of state, sent a letter to the magistrates, thanking them for their conduct ; Mr. Wilkes published it, with remarks of his own, in which he terms the affair a horrid massacre ; and the Commons, on this publication, voted the expulsion of Mr. Wilkes. He was immediately re-elected by his former constituents ; and, on this election being declared void, elected a third time. On a fourth election, Colonel Luttrell, a son of Lord Irnham, was nominated in opposition ; and, though he had only 296 votes, and Mr. Wilkes 1143, was, by a great majority of the house, declared the legal member. These proceedings of the Commons were followed by others equally strong on the part of the people. It was asserted, in petitions to the throne, that a new parliament ought to be called ; that the existing one was illegal, its acts invalid, and the nation not bound to obey them. In Middlesex it was even attempted to act upon these principles. Some of the freeholders refused to pay the land-tax. They suffered actions to be brought against them for its recovery ; but in these, by the verdict of a jury, they were defeated.

In the year 1770, the American discontents making still further progress, a joint address of both houses of parliament was presented to the king, in which he was besought to bring to trial, within the realm of Great Britain, all offenders in the Massachusetts. This proposition exasperated the colonists, and was followed by strong and hostile resolutions, and determined acts of resistance. In 1774, the people of Massachusetts recommended a general congress ; and this body met accordingly, on the twenty-sixth day of October. Actual hostilities quickly followed ; and in 1775, a battle was fought at Lexington, in which the English dispersed the Americans, but with the loss of two hundred and seventy-three men. In the same year, General George Washington was appointed commander in chief of the American army ; and, before its termination, the English government was virtually overturned. The congress had not, on its first appointment, proceeded to declare the colonies independent ; but this act was proposed on the 7th of June 1776, and, being subsequently agreed to, promulgated on the 4th of July.

The Americans now began to take up arms in every quarter, assuming the title of the United States of America. They soon after took the garisons of Ticonderago and Crown Point, where they found, what they were greatly in want of, vast quantities of military stores. In 1777, a treaty of alliance was concluded between the king of France and the United States. Soon after which Admiral Keppel engaged the French fleet commanded by Count D'Orvilliers : neither side got the victory in this action, and the enemy was suffered to escape, owing to a misunderstanding between the two admirals, Keppel and Palliser, both of whom were, on their arrival in England, brought to court-martial, where the former was honourably acquitted, and the latter, for disobedience of orders, partially acquitted and partly condemned.

In 1779, the Spaniards joined the French, took New Orleans on the Mississippi, and laid siege to Gibraltar.

In the American colonies, during this and the two preceding years, the war was carried on with great animosity by both parties with various success, a particular description of which would greatly exceed the limits allowed for this summary, till at length, in 1781, an event took place in the highest degree disastrous to the English, and decisive of the good fortune of the Americans. The English army, under the command of Lord Cornwallis, was reduced to the necessity of capitulating with General Washington, at York-town, and even forced to relinquish the honour of marching out with its colours flying.

Added to this, as if we had not a sufficient number

number of enemies on our hands already, the British ministry, perhaps rather rashly, engaged in a war with the Dutch, between whose ships and the English fleet, under Admiral Parker, a most desperate engagement happened, off the Dogger Bank, which was maintained with equal gallantry by both parties, and at last ended in a drawn battle.

In April 1782, Admiral Rodney came up with the French fleet in the West Indies, when a desperate engagement took place, and the *Ville de Paris*, a large ship of 110 guns, was taken, together with two of 74, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ship blew up by accident soon after she was in our possession, and another of 74 sunk during the engagement: a few days after two more of the same fleet, of 64 guns, were captured in the *Mona* passage by Admiral Hood. By this great victory, the design against Jamaica was frustrated; and Admiral Rodney, for the great skill and gallantry he displayed, was created a peer. In September the memorable siege of Gibraltar by the Spaniards ended in the discomfiture and destruction of nearly all the shipping, &c. employed, and most of the assailants in them, through the genius and intrepidity of General Elliot and his brave associates.

Though the capture of Lord Cornwallis did not put an actual, yet it may be said to have put a virtual end to the war in America. All hopes of conquering it were from that moment abandoned as vain and chimerical; and every military operation that was afterwards carried on, was not so much with a view of subjugating the colonies, as to maintain the honour of the British arms. The object of the war, therefore, being now fairly given up as impracticable, on the 30th of November, 1782, preliminaries of peace, in which the king of Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States, were signed at Paris, and those preliminaries were followed by a definitive treaty. Thus a period was put to a most calamitous war, in which Great Britain lost the best part of her American colonies, and many thousand valuable lives, and expended or squandered 150 millions of money.

Among our more immediate domestic occurrences, a short time previous to this, were those outrageous and disgraceful riots which pervaded the metropolis in 1780. In consequence of some indulgences now granted by parliament to Roman Catholics, a riotous and licentious mob assembled in St. George's Fields, in order to petition both houses against shewing these marks of lenity; soon after which they proceeded to commit the most terrible devastations: they destroyed all the Romish chapels in and about town; they burnt the different prisons, and plundered the houses of many

private individuals; so that the city represented a town taken by storm, by the hands of unmerciful enemies. At length troops poured in from all quarters, and tranquillity was restored; though not before a considerable number of the rioters were shot, several burnt in the flames they themselves had kindled, and many tried and executed.

The history of England, during the period in which the peace was negotiated, is remarkable for the frequent changes of administration. On the dismissal of the persons who had carried on the war, the marquis of Rockingham was made first lord of the treasury; and Mr. Fox, a younger son of the Mr. Fox afterwards Lord Holland, and the earl of Shelburne, now marquis of Lansdown, secretaries of state: but the marquis of Rockingham dying, his place was filled by the earl of Shelburne, an arrangement which induced Mr. Fox and others to resign; nor was it till after the creation of a third ministry, brought about by the coalition of Mr. Fox and Lord North, and at the head of which was Mr. Fox, that the peace was concluded.

On the return of public tranquillity, an object of great magnitude and importance pressed for immediate consideration. The company of merchants of London trading to the East Indies, had acquired, in those parts of the world, immense territories; and their affairs demanded a system of regulations. Mr. Fox brought a bill into parliament, the provisions of which vested in certain commissioners the entire management of the company's concerns, territorial and commercial, and placed in the same hands its house, books, papers, and documents. This bill, which was regarded as proposing to violate private property, and creating in the persons of the commissioners a power superior to either king, lords, or commons, excited a most strenuous opposition, and though passed by the Commons, where in particular it was combated by Mr. William Pitt, younger son of the late minister, it was rejected by the Lords. This defeat of the administration led to its destruction, and the appointment of Mr. Pitt to be first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer.

It was not till after a new parliament had been called (1784), that Mr. Pitt was enabled to effect any measure. He was now, however, possessed of a considerable majority, and he proceeded to introduce three bills for the affairs of India. His plan was received as equally calculated to correct the abuses of the company's servants with that of Mr. Fox, and of a less injurious tendency: it left the rights of the directors and proprietors as they were, but subjected them to a board of control.

Nothing further, that can demand a place in this summary, presents itself in the affairs of England till the year 1787, when a treaty of commerce was signed

signed between this country and France. Its substance was, the mutual exchange of every species of commodity except warlike stores. It appears to have been advantageous to England, and injurious to France. The same year a war was threatened between these and the other powers of Europe. The United Provinces, at that time governed by the house of Orange, contained a strong party hostile to that government, and which was assisted by France. Prussia and England supported the friends of the stadtholder. The democratical party had taken to arms; Prussia had sent an army, commanded by the duke of Brunswick, to the relief of the stadtholder; France notified her intention of arming on the opposite side; and England, in consequence, fitted out an armament: but the tranquillity of the provinces was suddenly restored, and the preparations for war laid aside.

But the year following (1788) is one that ranks among the most memorable. In England, where a profound peace was enjoyed, the public attention was, in the spring, principally engaged by the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. a former governor general of Bengal, impeached by the Commons of England, as guilty of various high crimes and misdemeanors. This trial had commenced in 1786, and lasted ten years, at the end of which Mr. Hastings was acquitted. During the same session of parliament, an effort was made to repress a part of the calamities attendant on the slave-trade, by passing a bill which provided for the transportation of a smaller number of slaves in each ship.

The year 1788 has also a peculiar claim to notice in the annals of England; it was the centenary anniversary of that revolution of 1688, to which the British people owe a constitution which, practically viewed, is the master-piece of political wisdom; and the 4th of November, in this year, was accordingly celebrated throughout Great Britain and Ireland.

But while the nation was thus indulging its sentiments of gratitude on this glorious occasion, it was suddenly alarmed by the afflicted state of health into which the king, the head of that house by which the bill of rights has been maintained, had fallen. His indisposition commenced early in the month of October, in consequence of a cold, caught by walking over some wet grass. It consisted in a rheumatic pain, which fixed in his stomach, but was soon removed to the extremities. On the 4th of November he had a relapse, attended with a violent pain in his bowels. On the 6th he was found to labour under an alienation of mind. On the 13th the privy council ordered a form of prayer for his recovery to be prepared; and sent circular letters to the members of parliament, requiring their attendance on the 20th of the same month. On the 20th the two houses met; but his

majesty not being present in the House of Peers, and no commission having been issued, either for holding, or for a further prorogation of the parliament, both houses unanimously agreed to adjourn to the 4th day of December following. On the latter day it accordingly met, but in a manner not strictly regular, for want of the king's authority. Mr. Pitt proposed a regency, and all parties agreed in regarding the prince of Wales as the person proper to be appointed regent: but the ministry contended for the necessity of denying to that officer some of the prerogatives of the crown; and, notwithstanding the earnest opposition of Mr. Fox and his party, their measures were on the point of being carried into effect, when, early in the month of March, 1789, the king was happily re-enabled to take upon him his great functions. Sanity of mind and reason resumed their seat, and left no trace of their temporary subversion. Time confirmed the cure, and restored to his subjects a prince, rendered supremely and peculiarly dear to them by the recent prospect and apprehension of his loss. The vision of regency faded and disappeared, as the sovereign came forward to public view, and was totally extinguished by his resumption of all the regal functions. The demonstrations of national joy far exceeded any recorded in the English annals, and were probably more real and unfeigned than ever were offered on similar occasions. No efforts of despotism, or mandates of arbitrary power, could have produced the illuminations, which not only the capital, but almost every town and village throughout the kingdom, exhibited in testimony of its loyalty; and these proofs of attachment were renewed, and augmented, on the occasion of his majesty's first appearance in public, and his solemn procession to St. Paul's, on the 23d of April, 1789, to return thanks to heaven for his recovery.

In 1790 we were on the point of renewing the war with Spain, in consequence of some outrages offered to our flag at Nootka Sound; but the Spanish court made the necessary acknowledgment for the injury, and our armaments were suspended.

In the year 1791 the cause of toleration received an accession which must be peculiarly grateful to the friends of freedom. It is remarkable, that, notwithstanding the radical freedom of our constitution, no nation in Europe has been more jealous of their religious establishment; and scarcely have the Roman Catholic states themselves loaded with a more oppressive weight of civil penalties those who dissented in religious opinion. It has for almost half a century been the task of the legislature to root out, gradually and cautiously, from the code of our laws, those disgraceful statutes. As the Romish church was the grand object of terror

terror in the first ages of reformation, it was scarcely matter of surprise that our statute-book should be loaded with the most rigorous and sanguinary edicts directed against the professors of that obnoxious faith; and though, in the year 1780, some of these were removed, yet in the year 1791, in a well-known book, Burn's Ecclesiastical Law, not less than 70 pages were to be found entirely occupied with the bare enumeration of the penal statutes in force against the Roman Catholics. Among these were some of the most sanguinary nature. It was high-treason, and death, to make a convert to the Roman Catholic faith. Severe penalties were enacted on Papists for hearing mass, by some statutes; and by others they were compelled to attend the established worship, however contrary to their consciences. That such laws should have been framed in times of difficulty and danger, in times when the church of Rome flourished in all the vigour of temporal power, and urged her authority by all the rigours of persecution, and all the artifices of bigotry, is not surprising; it is only surprising that they should have been suffered to remain in force for centuries of peace and tranquillity, when the power of the pope is annihilated even in countries professing his religion, and when all the obnoxious principles of that religion are disavowed by its professors. A reform in the penal statutes became the more necessary, since, in the course of the year 1790, a large body of Catholic Dissenters had formally protested against the temporal power of the pope, against his assumed authority of releasing men from their civil obligations, or dispensing with the sacredness of oaths.

It was upon these principles, and supported by these arguments, that Mr. Mitford moved, on the 21st of February, 1791, for a committee of the whole house to enable him "to bring in a bill to relieve, upon conditions, and under restrictions, persons called Protestant Catholic Dissenters, from certain penalties and disabilities, to which papists, or persons professing the popish religion, are by law subject." This bill, Mr. Mitford added, would be similar to that which had passed in Ireland some years since; and where no ill consequence had resulted in a country where the Roman Catholics were so much more numerous than in this. The house entered upon the subject with a liberality which does them infinite honour; and the bill proceeded through its several stages without opposition.

The rights of juries had long been in an indefinite and indeterminate state, particularly in the case of libels; and disputes, disgraceful in themselves, and injurious to the administration of justice; had frequently arisen between the court and the jury, between the judges and the counsel:

even among the professors of the law a difference of opinion had long existed.

On the 25th of May, therefore, in this year, Mr. Fox presented his bill for removing doubts with respect to the rights of juries in criminal cases. The bill sets forth, that juries, in cases of libels, should have a power of judging the whole matter, and of finding a general verdict of guilty or not guilty. With a slight opposition from the legal profession, it completed its progress through the House of Commons. In the House of Lords, where the influence of the law is more predominant, it experienced a very different reception, and was strongly opposed. However, in the following year, this great constitutional point was at last decided by the Lords and Commons, that JURIES ARE JUDGES OF BOTH THE LAW AND THE FACT.

In this year also Mr. Wilberforce began his motion for the abolition of the Slave Trade, which, after an *annual* discussion, till the year 1807, was at length carried!

But that which now, and for ever, must command the livelier attention of mankind, was the commencement of those internal disturbances which finally overthrew the monarchy of France; left, in the destruction of old and the erection of new states, their traces in surrounding countries; shook Europe throughout, and all parts of the world connected with it; and, by their principles and consequences, have given a new impulse to the affairs of mankind. The limits of this summary preclude the possibility of entering here into particulars respecting the French revolution, which more properly belongs to the history of that country, the affairs of which now began to involve the history of all Europe. England had flattered herself with the long continuance of profound peace, during which she was daily advancing in the arts of civilization, in commercial prosperity, and in the diminution of her public debt: but now the troubles in France, and the conduct of that government awakened her apprehensions. The National Assembly of that country, which had been summoned together in 1789, to take into consideration the unsettled state of the nation, had proceeded, step by step, to make encroachments upon the royal prerogative; till, at length, nothing remained to their unfortunate monarch but the name of king. But it was reserved for the National Convention, who met in September 1792, to complete the levelling system which for several years disturbed the peace of Europe; they instantly decreed the abolition of royalty, and the formation of a republic upon the chimerical principles of liberty and equality. On the 21st of January following, having brought their unfortunate monarch to the scaffold, they passed a decree, promising to make a common cause with all subjects who should

take up arms against their government; and this decree, together with the hostile dispositions manifested toward the Stadtholder, induced the English government to join the allies. On the meeting of parliament, on the 13th of December, 1792, the king had stated the necessity under which he found himself of paying attention to the internal government of France: the strong and increasing indications which had appeared there of an intention to excite disturbances in other countries, to disregard the rights of neutral nations, and follow views of conquest and aggrandizement, as well as to adopt towards his allies, the States General, measures which were neither conformable to the law of nations, or to the positive assurances of existing treaties; circumstances under which he had thought it right to have recourse to those means of prevention and internal defence with which he was entrusted by law, and to make some augmentation of his naval and military force. These measures were approved by a very considerable majority of each house of parliament, which likewise proceeded to pass bills for forcibly transporting aliens out of the kingdom, and preventing the exportation of corn to France. In the end, M. Chauvelin, the French ambassador, was ordered, at a short notice, to quit the kingdom; and all hopes of reconciliation being precluded by the measures respectively adopted by either country, the Convention, on the 1st of February, 1793, unanimously declared the republic at war with the king of Great Britain and the stadtholder of Holland; a phraseology by which they intended to make a distinction between the sovereigns and the people of the states in question.

England, the emperor, the empire, and Russia, were now united against France. English troops, under the duke of York, the king's second son, were sent into the Netherlands. The combined armies defeated the French under General Miranda, and raised the siege of Maestricht: Condé and Valenciennes also surrendered; the latter to the duke of York, who afterwards made an unsuccessful attempt on Dunkirk. In the mean time, the English and Spanish fleets were received into the harbour of Toulon, where Lord Hood proclaimed his intention to retain the ships, naval stores, and arsenal, until Louis XVII. the son of the late king, should be placed on the throne. Toulon was now garrisoned with eighteen thousand men of different nations; the kings of Spain, Naples, and Sardinia, having joined the confederacy against France. Sir Gilbert Elliot (afterward Lord Minto), General O'Hara, and Lord Hood, were commissioned to treat with the royalists of Toulon; but, in December, the troops of their government forced the allies to abandon the harbour, after setting fire, however, to the arsenals, blowing up the powder magazines,

and burning nine ships of the line, besides frigates and ships in the docks.

In the following year (1794), England made considerable conquests in the East and West Indies, added Corsica to her empire, and gained, under the orders of Lord Howe, a splendid victory over the French fleet. At home, the people were agitated by violent and opposite sentiments. The ministers and their friends naturally insisted on the justice and the necessity of the war, and blended with this question the merits of the revolution; their constitutional opponents condemned the war, and endeavoured to separate from the politics of England all speculation on the government of France; a third, but much inferior party, was excited, by the events of the times, to inquiries into the theory of government in general, and indeed, by its false views, to entertain projects subversive of that constitution which it is the glory of their country to enjoy, the merits of which no praise can exaggerate, and which had already given to England all that France was struggling, amidst so many sufferings, to obtain. Between the second and third of these descriptions of men, there ought indeed to be placed a very numerous class, containing a portion of each of them, whose aversion to the measures of ministers, and the rage of political research, led to look with peculiar earnestness to a reform in the constitution of the House of Commons; an object universally regarded as desirable, and which had long been aimed at by persons never suspected of disloyalty. It was the policy of the ministers, however, to break down these lesser distinctions, and comprehend all their enemies under the name of enemies to the constitution. That some of the reformers desired extensive changes, and that the conduct of all might have led to it, is to be admitted; but the proceedings of Mr. Pitt and his colleagues do not appear to have been wise. Many persons were convicted of sedition; but others were arraigned for high treason, a crime of which, to the great but merited injury of government, they were triumphantly acquitted, and of which they could not have been found guilty without the most dreadful infringement of the law.

In 1795, the French, under General Pichegru, over-ran the Seven United Provinces, obliging the stadtholder to take refuge in England. The provinces were now formed into a republic, on the model of that of France, under the appellation of the Batavian republic. On the part of England, a naval victory was obtained off Port l'Orient, on the 23d of June. A body of French emigrants, under her pay, made an unsuccessful landing on the coast, where on the 21st of July they were surprised, and the greater part of them either killed in battle, or executed as traitors. The Cape of

Good

Good Hope, and Trincomalee, in the island of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch. During this year, the French concluded treaties of peace with Spain, the Batavian republic, Tuscany, Hesse-Cassel, Hanover, and Prussia, and established, after the ruin and execution of Robespierre, a new constitution, by which the government was vested in a directory, consisting of five members; a council of ancients, of two hundred and fifty members; and a council of five hundred. On the 8th of December, a message from the king was delivered to the English parliament, stating his disposition to enter into any negotiation for a general peace, whenever this object could be obtained on just and suitable terms for himself and his allies. On this message, however, no proceeding was immediately founded.

On the 8th of March following, an actual attempt was made to induce a negotiation for peace, but the English government, though it had relinquished its desire of restoring monarchy in France, was at this time firmly resolved not to allow the retention of the Netherlands by the republic. As each party was equally firm upon this subject, the idea of peace was precluded.

England continued successful at sea; but on the continent, the French opened another campaign in Italy, under the orders of Napoleon Bonaparte, late a captain of artillery. His victories succeeded each other almost without intermission, till, in the month of August, 1797, he had almost reached the gates of Vienna, when the emperor concluded a treaty of peace at Campo-Formio. The same campaign overthrew the pope's dominions, and almost all the other existing states of Italy, and established small republics on their ruins; and rendered it necessary for the English to abandon Corsica.

In December, 1796, the French made an attempt to invade Ireland, where they expected to be assisted by the disaffection which had lately appeared to exist in that kingdom. On the 20th, seven sail of French ships, some of which were of the line, and carrying twenty-five thousand troops, under the command of General Hoche, made their appearance in Bantry Bay, but were driven away by a tempest, and compelled to return to Brest and Rochelle, with the loss of a frigate captured by the English, and two 74 gun ships, which ran on shore near Brest.

The French, at this period, threatened all the British islands with invasion, and compelled the government to take measures for their internal defence: fifteen thousand men were added to the army and navy, and volunteer corps of cavalry and infantry trained in all parts of the dominions.

A negotiation was now opened in Paris, between Lord Malmesbury on the part of England, and M. Delacroix on that of France; but the successes

of the French had not decreased the demands of the English, and the Netherlands still opposed an insurmountable barrier: Lord Malmesbury was therefore ordered to leave the republic.

On the 14th of February in the following year (1797), another considerable naval victory was obtained by the English. Fifteen sail of the line, under the orders of Sir John Jervis, attacked the Spanish fleet, of twenty-seven sail of the line, off Cape St. Vincent; and after an engagement of five hours, became the conqueror, and captured four ships. The marine history of England, about the period of this glorious achievement, is unfortunately clouded by a serious mutiny on board a fleet then under sailing orders, and which lasted several weeks. Very serious apprehensions were entertained; but the mutineers, quarrelling among themselves, at length returned to their duty, and the whole terminated with the execution of the ringleaders.

A third attempt was made by the English government to negotiate a peace with France, and the terms now proposed were extremely interesting, as shewing, more than can be done by the confused narrative of military reverses and successes, the real progress of the war. The negotiations for peace are so many epochs, dividing the periods of this momentous struggle. In the first (1793), England demanded the restoration of the monarchy, and the entire re-instatement of affairs in their original posture. In the second (1796), which was the first of negotiation, she insisted only on the renunciation of the new additions to the territory of France. In the third (also in 1796, and a sort of completion of the former), she persisted in this object. In the fourth period (ending in the peace of Amiens), she abandoned this object, requiring only, in return for her restitutions, certain colonial cessions from Spain and the Batavian republic. Her efforts for peace were this time frustrated by the bold demand of France, that, as an indispensable preliminary, she should consent to restore, not only all the possessions she had wrested from the French republic, but even those which she had taken from Spain and the Batavian republic; a demand which was peremptorily rejected by her plenipotentiary, who had scarcely returned, before a fourth important sea-fight was crowned with that success for which his country had become so eminently distinguished; and which buoyed up the spirits of the people, amidst a contest, in the great objects of which they were daily losing ground. On the 11th of October, Admiral Duncan, with fourteen sail of the line, attacked the Batavian fleet of fifteen, close in with its own coast, near the village of Camperdown, breaking its line, so as to place himself between it and the land, and capturing nine ships of the line and two frigates.

The unbending disposition of the French government at this period, may be attributed to the prosperous state of its arms. In Italy, from which the English required she should withdraw her troops and interference, General Bonaparte had concluded the treaty of Campo-Formio, by which the emperor entered into peace with the republic, on condition of receiving, in exchange for the Netherlands, the Venetian states.

The trade between India and Europe anciently passed through Egypt; a country which (since the revival of that trade, by a circuitous maritime course, but particularly as a means of annoying England, so peculiarly enriched by it) France has long wished to take out of the hands of the house of Othman, for two centuries its possessors. It was a project conceived under the monarchy, and which was earnestly adopted by General Bonaparte, who was sent by the directory to attempt its realization. On the 21st of June 1798, he sailed from Toulon, at the head of one of the most splendid armaments ever prepared. Besides numerous troops, he carried with him a body of learned and scientific men, by whose means he hoped, in the most rapid manner, to draw out the resources of the country; to unite the French with the Egyptians, and the Egyptians with the French; to communicate the arts of Europe, and imbibe those of Asia and Africa; and to promote those researches to which the venerable name of Egypt excites the scholar and the philosopher. An English fleet, under the command of Admiral Nelson, had been watching his motions, and on his leaving Toulon, immediately pursued. Doubtful as to his object, and totally unacquainted with his route, the admiral lost so much time in endeavouring to discover him, that he was enabled to reach the coast, take Alexandria, and even Cairo, before his ships were attacked. These, under the command of Admiral Brueys, were moored in the road of Aboukir, at a small distance from Alexandria, where they imagined themselves so favoured by situation as to be out of the reach of danger. Compared with the previous history of naval actions they were so; but, in the immortal Nelson, they were encountered by an officer already renowned for enterprise, and who on this occasion did not hesitate on the most daring manœuvre: he broke their line, placed himself between them and the land, and gained, on the 1st of August, a signal victory. In the battle the French admiral's ship blew up.

Egypt, at the period of the French invasion, was rather governed by a military aristocracy, in nominal submission, than by the court of Constantinople. This aristocracy, consisting of twenty-four beys, elected from among the Mamelukes, their slaves and soldiers, Bonaparte never wholly subdued; but, after an expedition into Syria, in

which he so far succeeded as to prevent the junction of the pasha of Acre with the Turkish troops that were preparing to attack him, he received a check at Acre, which was gallantly defended under the auspices of the pasha and an English naval officer, Sir William Sydney Smith. After defeating the Turks at Aboukir, Bonaparte secretly left Egypt, according to his original plan, and unexpectedly landed in France, at the port of Ferjus.

During his absence, the Directory had become extremely unpopular. The war had been renewed by the emperor, in conjunction with the effective aid of Russia; and the French arms had suffered reverses on all sides. The opinion, that it is possible for a great nation to exist under an executive government not fully vested in the hands of one man, had been so strongly entertained in France, that no constitution capable of imparting public tranquillity had found an advocate; nor, perhaps, was it till now, that any one man had stood sufficiently alone, to receive such an investiture: but Bonaparte had reached this station; and, if any thing were wanting to assist his views, the fate of the French arms while he was out of France, and the want of public confidence in the directory, amply supplied it. A plan was concerted, by which, on the 9th of November, a new revolution was momentarily effected, and the supreme power lodged in his hands. In allusion, probably, to the name given to the chief magistrates of Rome, after the expulsion of the kings, he established a consulate of three members, making himself the first.

The principal operation undertaken by the British in 1799, was the expedition fitted out under the command of the duke of York, to rescue Holland from the yoke of the French, in which about 30,000 British troops were employed, which were joined in Holland by about 17,000 Russians, taken into British pay. This armament left the English shores in the beginning of August, in two divisions: after encountering violent gales, at length a landing was effected by the gallantry of our troops, in the midst of determined opposition. But owing to the want of discipline among the Russians, and the immense body of troops which poured in from all quarters to the assistance of the enemy, after a hard-fought battle of twelve hours, on the 2d of October, which terminated in favour of the British, who took possession of Alkmaer, the success of the expedition terminated, and an armistice was concluded with the French commander, by which, on certain conditions, the combined armies were permitted to evacuate the country. Such was the termination of an expedition, the failure of which when planned was considered as almost impossible. But though the principal end of the undertaking was not answered, yet the capture of the Dutch fleet, which surrendered

surrendered without a blow to Admiral Mitchell, nearly annihilated the naval power of the Batavian republic, and secured still more to Britain the sovereignty of the seas, which is our only protection, the source of all our wealth and all our glory.

A new war having taken place in India with Tippoo Saib, Seringapatam, his capital, was taken, and himself killed in the assault, by the British troops under the command of Lieutenant-General Harris. Of the capture of this important place, and the consequent addition of the greater part of the Mysore country to the territory of the East India Company, a farther account will be given in our description and history of Hindostan.

Internal tranquillity, and a general peace, were the apparent objects of the first consul of France. England, however, refused to treat with him; and, in the spring of 1800, a new campaign was opened in Italy. A few events rapidly decided its fate. Bonaparte, by a bold effort, crossed the Alps; and, coming up with the Austrians at Marengo, obtained a decisive victory; after which, the emperor once more solicited for peace, which he obtained by the treaty of Luneville, on the 5th of February 1801.

England, in the mean time, was successfully engaged in defeating the Egyptian enterprise, for which object she entered into a triple alliance with the Porte and Russia; but in Europe new enemies demanded her attention, and inspired the hopes of France.

The Northern Powers denied her right of searching neutral vessels, and some acts of hostility had arisen out of this question. The dispute had been previously agitated during the war, and rather silenced than settled. An English fleet was now sent into the Baltic, with orders to bombard Copenhagen, in case the court of Denmark should not relax. Denmark prepared to defend her capital; and Admiral Lord Nelson, who acted under Sir Hyde Parker, thought proper, after giving and sustaining a severe fire, to send a flag of truce, proposing a cessation of hostilities. The two powers afterwards entered into a convention.

Previous to these transactions the administration of Mr. Pitt, which had continued eighteen years, unexpectedly terminated by the resignation of that statesman, on the 11th of January in this year, which was immediately followed by that of his colleagues. What his reasons were do not appear to have been very satisfactorily explained: but it is generally understood to have been occasioned by a difference of opinion in the cabinet relative to a promise of Catholic emancipation, made to the people of that persuasion in Ireland, when the measure of the union of the two kingdoms (which took place on the 1st of January in this year) was

carried, was the real cause of his resigning his power, which certainly did him great honour, as he chose rather to descend from his high station, than falsify a solemn engagement. He was succeeded, as first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer, by Mr. Addington, then speaker of the house of commons. Lord Hawkesbury was appointed secretary for foreign affairs, and other suitable arrangements were made; but owing to the indisposition of his majesty, the new ministers did not enter on their functions till the middle of March.

On the return of Lord Nelson from the Baltic, several light expeditions were sent under his orders, to destroy the gun-boats then fitting out at Boulogne; but the strength of the batteries, and the precautions taken by France, of fastening the boats with iron chains, rendered his efforts, though gallant in the extreme, entirely unsuccessful.

On leaving Egypt, Bonaparte had been succeeded in his command by General Kleber, whom he instructed to pursue a treaty for the evacuation of that country, which he himself had proposed to the grand vizir. General Kleber accordingly formed a convention at El Arish, by the terms of which Sir Sydney Smith, on the part of England, undertook to assist the French troops with shipping and passports for their voyage home. Unfortunately his government, about this time, issued orders to the admiral on that station, strictly forbidding him to allow of the return of any of the French to Europe. The situation in which the latter were placed by the consequent rupture of the convention, led to their fighting the Turks at Heliopolis, where they obtained a complete victory. They were, therefore, now much less disposed than before to evacuate the country; and a short time afterwards, General Kleber being assassinated by a religious enthusiast, the command devolved on General Menou, who had much at heart the retaining it in the possession of France.

To overthrow a plan so much to be deprecated by England, a body of troops was sent, under the orders of Sir Ralph Abercrombie. In the face of a most vigorous resistance, this general landed at Aboukir, on the 13th of March. During the following days he took a position four miles nearer Alexandria; but falling in a successful battle on the 21st, he was succeeded by Lieutenant-General Hutchinson, to whom General Belliard at Cairo, and General Menou at Alexandria, surrendered, before the end of August.

France, at this period, threatened England with invasion; but while this object employed public speculation, the terms of a general peace were seriously agitated between the two cabinets; and on the 1st of October, only a few days before the arrival of the news of General Hutchinson's success

in Egypt, it was announced in London that the preliminaries were signed.

The definitive treaty was signed at Amiens, on the 27th day of March. Its provisions scarcely differed from those offered in 1797, except in what regarded subsequent events; the invasion of Egypt, and the collateral capture and re-capture of Malta, which was now occupied by the English. 1. The king of Great Britain and Ireland restored to his Catholic majesty and the Batavian republic, all the possessions and colonies which he had taken from them during the war, with the exception of the island of Trinidad, on the coast of South America, and the Dutch possessions in the island of Ceylon, in the East Indies, which these powers ceded and guaranteed. 2. The territories of Portugal and the Sublime Porte were maintained in their integrity, such as they were previous to the war. 3. A new republic, called the republic of the Seven Islands, in the Adriatic, was acknowledged by France. 4. Malta, and its dependencies, were to be restored to the order of St. John of Jerusalem, but under the guarantee of the principal powers in Europe. 5. Compensations were to be procured for the family of the late stadtholder of the United Provinces. 6. In allusion to the political state of France and Europe in general, it was agreed that each contracting party should carefully avoid every thing which might afterward affect the union happily re-established, and give no succour or protection, direct or indirect, to those who desired to injure either of them. And, 7, by the twentieth article, an arrangement, new in diplomatics, was made, in virtue of which, persons guilty of capital crimes, flying from justice, and charged upon evidence which would have condemned them in the country to which they had fled, were to be delivered up on application of the minister of their government.

Thus ended a war which forms an epoch in the history of the world, and in the progress of which ancient states and ancient governments had fallen, and new ones been erected. A war to which, perhaps, the French government owes its consolidation, but which certainly arrested the revolutionary principle. With respect to the three more important powers, England, Germany, and France, each may be said to have been successful; for each maintained its constitution. There was undoubtedly a period of the war, in which France aimed at destroying all existing governments of Europe; in this she was defeated: but in securing her own freedom, and increasing her greatness, she defeated all her enemies. This war, therefore, prevented the evils that pressed on the surrounding nations at the time, but created a source of future.

The restless and insatiable ambition of the French government did not suffer this treaty long to re-

main inviolate. Bonaparte affected to treat England, as if it was compelled by necessity to conclude peace, and incapable of resisting the encroachments of France unsupported by foreign allies. But the chief subject of dispute was ostensibly the island of Malta; which the English refused to evacuate, without the guarantee for which she had stipulated at the late treaty. At length, after a protracted negotiation, in the course of which, the then first consul expressed himself with equal petulance and insolence, descending even, in a conference with the English ambassador Lord Whitworth, to the contemptible threat of invasion, a message from his majesty was sent to the House of Commons, on the 16th of May 1803, stating that the conduct of the French government had compelled him to recal his ambassador from Paris, and that the French ambassador had left London.

This conduct of our enemy aroused the just indignation of the whole population of the country, who, as with the voice of one man, came forward as volunteers to be trained to the use of arms, and to repel our adversary in case any unforeseen incident should favour his landing on our coasts. The number of these persons, as returned to parliament, the 6th of December in this year, amounted to 379,943 in Great Britain. In the mean time Bonaparte endeavoured to stimulate the powers on the continent to make a common cause against England, under a threat, if they did not, of being considered as enemies of France, and being treated accordingly. Spain, Holland, and several of the smaller German states, fearful of the consequences of resistance, joined the confederacy; and he now began to attempt an influence upon the courts of Petersburg, Vienna, &c.

In the following year (1804), Mr. Pitt returned to his former station in the British ministry; but he was surrounded with difficulties, as many of his former colleagues had joined the standard of opposition, and he may almost be said to have been left to wield the energies of the state alone. He effected another coalition with Russia and Austria against France, which, from the bad management of the latter of those powers, failed of success. But though unsuccessful in her alliances on the continent, England still maintained her superiority at sea. On the re-commencement of hostilities, Admiral Lord Nelson had been appointed to the sole command of the British fleet in the Mediterranean; and, notwithstanding all his vigilance, the French fleet escaped from Toulon, and was joined by that of Spain from Cadiz, of which being apprised, he pursued them to the West Indies, with a very inferior force. On hearing of his arrival, the combined squadrons, struck with terror, returned without effecting any thing, and after a partial

partial action with Sir Robert Calder, returned to Cadiz. The French under Admiral Villeneuve, and the Spaniards under Gravina, at length, on the 19th of October 1805, ventured out, with a number of troops on board, and on the 21st, about noon, a desperate action commenced off Cape Trafalgar. The combined fleet, commanded by Admiral Villeneuve, consisted of 33 ships of the line, viz. 18 French and 15 Spanish; the British, of only 27 of the line. The enemy were disposed in a most judicious manner for action, in the form of a crescent, which was attacked by the British in two divisions, who gallantly broke their line and commenced a most tremendous fire on their opponents. Lord Nelson ordered his ship, the Victory, to be carried alongside his old antagonist the Santissima Trinidad (a large Spanish vessel which he had formerly engaged in the battle off Cape St. Vincent), where he was exposed to a severe fire of musquetry, and not having the precaution to cover his coat, which was decorated with a star, and other badges of distinction, he became an object for the riflemen, placed purposely in the tops of the Bucentaur, which lay on his quarter; a shot from one of these entered his breast, just below the shoulder, of which he died in about two hours, just as the greater part of the enemy's ships struck to their opponents. After the fall of Nelson, the command devolved upon Lord Collingwood, by whose skill and bravery the most complete victory was confirmed: 4 sail were carried to Gibraltar, 16 were destroyed, and 6 of those that escaped into Cadiz were reduced to mere wrecks; 4 French line of battle ships, which hauled off during the action, were afterwards taken by Sir R. Strachan, after a hard contest, as they were attempting to gain a French port. Thus terminated one of the most memorable and decisive naval engagements on record, which at one blow nearly annihilated the marine of our enemies; but which, on account of the death of the immortal Nelson, was certainly to be considered as a great national deprivation; for the hero of the Nile and Trafalgar (though our navy has produced numbers of great and brave characters) was certainly the most famous it ever had. His remains were interred with great pomp, at the public expence, in St. Paul's cathedral, January 9, 1806.

In the mean time, a gouty habit, and unremitted mental exertions, had completely undermined the constitution of Mr. Pitt, whose great and splendid talents excited the admiration of all: this wonderful man died January 23, and was interred, at the public expence, in Westminster Abbey, by the side of his father, the great earl of Chatham.

The death of Mr. Pitt was succeeded by a total change in the cabinet; and that party, which for upwards of 20 years had been his political oppo-

nents, now came into power; Lord Grenville as first lord of the treasury, and Mr. Fox as secretary for foreign affairs. They had scarcely received their appointments, when intelligence of another naval victory reached England. Bonaparte, who in 1804 had assumed the title of Emperor of the French, was extremely anxious to retain the islands in the West Indies, belonging to France, which the English squadron on that station had closely blockaded: for the relief of these colonies, a French fleet had been dispatched from the mother country, which was pursued across the Atlantic by a British squadron under the command of Admiral Duckworth; who, after many disappointments, at length discovered the enemy's ships moored in the bay of St. Domingo, and without hesitation attacked them; the result of which was the capture of 3 sail of the line, and the destruction of 2 others, February 6th in this year. About the same period, advices were received of the capture of the Cape of Good Hope, by a detachment under the command of Sir David Baird and Sir Home Popham, on the 8th of January; these two commanders, after the reduction of the Cape, resolved to send a detachment for the purpose of reducing the Spanish colony of Buenos Ayres, which, under the command of General Beresford, was completely successful.

During these transactions in the more remote parts of the world, a new coalition had been formed between the king of Prussia and the emperor of Russia, against France, which, after several desperate battles in this and the following year, terminated by the peace of Tilsit, July 7th, 1807; whereby the former of those powers lost its political consequence in the scale of European politics, and an understanding commenced between the latter and the government of France, which, from that period, gave quite a different complexion to the affairs of the continent.

The new ministry in England had not enjoyed their situation long ere they were alarmed by the death of Mr. Fox, within twelve months after that of his old opponent Pitt; he also was buried at the expence of the public, and was succeeded, as secretary for foreign affairs, by Earl Grey. But, owing to a difference between them and his majesty, respecting the question of Catholic emancipation, in the spring of 1807, they suddenly resigned their different departments, and were succeeded by the friends of the late Mr. Pitt. The duke of Portland was appointed first lord of the treasury; Mr. Canning, secretary for foreign affairs; Mr. Perceval, chancellor of the exchequer, &c. One of the first measures of their administration was the sending an expedition to attack the city of Copenhagen, and to take possession of the Danish navy; which measure they justified by asserting that they were in possession

possession of the *secret articles* of the treaty of Tilsit between France and Russia, by which it appeared that they agreed to unite their interests against England; and as Bonaparte declared himself in want of "ships, colonies, and commerce," he recommended (as his own navy was nearly annihilated) the securing that of the Danes. But in this he was disappointed by the vigilance of our ministers, who in this one expedition acted with firmness and celerity; for both the city and fleet were in the possession of General Lord Cathcart and Admiral Gambier, on the 7th of September, 1807, after a desperate resistance on the part of the Danes. The conduct of the British ministry was highly resented by the court of St. Peterburgh, which, on the 31st of October following, declared war against England, which produced a similar declaration on the part of Great Britain, on the 18th of December.

We have already noticed the capture of Buenos Ayres by General Beresford; but which, owing to the smallness of the detachment employed, was obliged to be evacuated by our troops, and for the attack upon which, without express orders from home, the commanders were reprimanded. On evacuating the citadel, our forces took possession of a small fort on the south side of the river La Plate; from whence a successful attack was made upon the town of Monte Video, which was taken by assault on the 3d of February. From the report of those adventurers who had been on the former expedition, government was induced to send another upon a larger scale, the command of which was given to Lieutenant-General Whitelocke; who, after effecting a landing, for want of skill, completely failed in his attempt, which ended in the total evacuation of the whole country by the British. On his return home, General Whitelocke was tried by a court-martial, by which he was sentenced to be cashiered, and rendered incapable of serving his majesty, March 1, 1808.

But that which has, for the two last years, engaged the attention of all Europe, and of England in particular, is the spirit of resistance which the people of Spain have manifested against the encroachments and ambitious designs of Bonaparte; who, after being crowned Emperor of the French, King of Italy, &c. and having placed his brothers on the thrones of Holland, Naples, and Westphalia, began to unfold his design of subverting and overturning the Spanish monarchy, together with that of Portugal. In 1807 a French army entered Spain, under the pretence of taking possession of the latter kingdom, the government of which had refused to shut her ports against England. General Junot, the commander of the French forces, entered Lisbon on the 29th of November, when the prince regent and the royal family emigrated to

the Brasils, escorted by a British squadron. But the views of Napoleon did not terminate here. After a series of events replete with duplicity and chicane, the king of Spain resigned his crown to his son, the prince of Asturias, who was proclaimed king by the title of Ferdinand VII. on the 18th of March, 1808, but was compelled to resign, and his father reinstated by Bonaparte in April, at the time when he persuaded the royal family to give him the meeting at Bayonne; after which he took them under his *friendly* protection, and removed them into the interior of France, where they still continue. A document was then circulated, wherein the king is represented as having abdicated the throne in favour of Bonaparte, who immediately appointed his brother Joseph, then king of Naples, to the crown of Spain and the Indies. These proceedings aroused the indignation of the people of Spain, who patriotically came forward in the cause of their king and country, and formed themselves into juntas for the above purposes. One of their first measures was to solicit the support of the English, between whom and the Spaniards a peace was announced on the 6th of June. Soon after which, General Sir Arthur Wellesley, with a considerable body of troops, sailed from England, which, with another body from Gibraltar, were to endeavour to effect the expulsion of the French from Portugal. After effecting a landing on the coast near Oporto, the British army came up with and defeated the French in a general engagement at Vimiera, on the 21st of August. The advantages which naturally would have resulted from this splendid achievement, were unfortunately thrown away by the disgraceful convention of Cintra, by which Sir Hew Dalrymple agreed that the French troops should be sent to France by sea, &c. and that a Russian fleet, which had taken refuge in the Tagus, should be restored to that power on the event of a general peace. On the arrival of this intelligence in England a general degree of dissatisfaction was manifested; as it was generally expected that the French would have been obliged to surrender at discretion. A court of enquiry was now established to take the matter into consideration, whose opinion it was, that the commander in chief had not acted wisely, and for which conduct he has not since been employed.

In the mean time the northern provinces of Spain began to manifest a determined spirit of opposition to the views of France, whom they now determined to drive from the peninsula. For this purpose they solicited the aid of England; and another British army, under the command of Sir John Moore, then in Portugal, was ordered to advance through the interior of that country to the north of Spain, where, after suffering intredible hardships, it was joined by a detachment which had landed on the northern coast

coast from England, under the command of Sir David Baird. Allured, no doubt, by treacherous advisers, the army advanced into the interior of the country, where, for the want of the co-operation of the Spaniards, they soon found themselves under the necessity of retreating before a very superior army of the enemy, which had been collected from all quarters for the purpose. In this retreat, the British commander gave evident proofs of that great and fertile genius which he on numerous occasions had evinced. Notwithstanding the vast superiority of the enemy, their knowledge of the country, and other advantages, he baffled all the skill of his adversaries, and arrived at Corunna nearly three days before the enemy, where he had ordered the transports for the embarkation of the troops to be sent round from Vigo; but, owing to contrary winds, this could not be effected till the third day after his arrival, on the evening of which, January 16, 1809, the English were attacked by the enemy, when all the cavalry, and a number of the infantry, were embarked; but, notwithstanding all the disadvantages under which this attack was to be met on the part of the British, by the judicious arrangements of the commander in chief a complete victory was obtained, though not without great loss on our part. Among the number of the killed was the ever to be lamented Sir John Moore, in the arms of victory, than whom a braver or more skilful officer never graced the British annals. Sir D. Baird, the second in command, was severely wounded, and great numbers of both officers and privates fell on that occasion. The effects of this victory were the safe embarkation of the sick and wounded, together with the remainder of the army, who soon after arrived in England.

A short time previous to this, circumstances had arisen, which, in their consequences, were likely to have produced a war with the United States of America. The British admiral on the Halifax station being apprised that several seamen, who had deserted from the ships on that station, were employed by the American government on board the Chesapeake frigate belonging to that country, gave orders, that, whenever that vessel should be met with, these men should be required to be given up; but upon this demand being made by one of our frigates, it was peremptorily refused, upon which the American was fired into, and one of the crew killed, which circumstance caused a general ferment throughout the whole of the States. Added to this, the French emperor, who had been stripped of nearly the whole of his navy by the British, had vauntingly declared England in a state of blockade, and issued several decrees against our commerce, and that of the states who continued neutral. These were

counteracted by the British orders in council; the purport of both of which measures went to the capture of neutral vessels, which even from necessity had sought for shelter in the ports of either country. Between those two measures, the government of America, whose trading ships were now become the common carriers of Europe, knew not how to act. At length, after much discussion, they resolved that an embargo should be laid on all their vessels in the United States, and proceeded to pass a non-intercourse act, whereby all communication was cut off between them and Europe. In order, if possible, to conciliate the States, favourable overtures were made to them through the medium of Mr. Erskine, our ambassador at their court, between whom and the executive government a favourable adjustment took place, and matters appeared to be finally settled; but on the arrival of this intelligence in England, ministers asserted that Mr. Erskine had exceeded his instructions, and therefore refused to ratify his engagements. This conduct produced considerable dissatisfaction on the part of the Americans, who have since refused to acknowledge Mr. Jackson, who succeeded Mr. Erskine as ambassador at their court, which has induced our government to send another person in that capacity, of whose arrival we have as yet no intelligence. Mr. Erskine is lately arrived in this country, and the whole of the mysterious affair is now about to be investigated by parliament.

During these events abroad, the parliament at home had been arduously employed in the investigation of certain charges against the duke of York, the commander in chief, who was accused by Colonel Wardle, M. P. for Oakhampton, with disposing of commissions in the army, and other places, not only in an irregular, but in a wanton manner, whereby several mistresses had been supported, and the service essentially injured. These charges being to a great extent substantiated, the duke thought it prudent to resign, and was succeeded in the chief command by Sir D. Dundas.

About this time, Bonaparte began to look with a jealous eye upon the conduct of Austria, who now set about organizing her armies and placing herself upon a respectable footing. The French minister at the court of Vienna carried himself so haughtily, while he demanded an explanation on this subject, that the emperor Francis soon found that he must either make one more effort to assert his independence, or else tacitly submit to disband his forces and to whatever humiliations the ambition of this usurper might require: after mature deliberation he at length determined on war, which was declared against France on the 8th of April. But, notwithstanding every effort that human prudence could suggest, or the bravery of his troops effect,

effect, after suffering a total defeat, at Wagram, on the 5th, 6th, and 7th of July, an armistice was agreed to on the 9th, which, in the end, was productive of a peace, by which Austria lost a considerable part of her possessions. In order to make a diversion in favour of this power, it was determined by the British government to send an extensive expedition to the continent; the first object of which should be the capture of Flushing, and then to make an attempt upon Antwerp by our land forces, while a number of our ships of war should proceed up the Scheldt, and secure the Dutch fleet in that river. The command of the land forces was given to the earl of Chatham, while that of the navy was under the direction of Sir R. Strachan. This formidable armament, consisting of upwards of 50,000 land forces, sailed from the British coast in the beginning of August, with most sanguine hopes of success; soon after which a landing was effected on the island of Walcheren, and the town of Flushing was invested both by sea and land, which, after suffering a most dreadful cannonade, surrendered on the 15th; but, owing to the time which had elapsed while this attack was carried on, the enemy had removed his fleet to some distance above the town of Antwerp, and a considerable body of troops had marched down to the coast, from the interior, to repel the invaders; upon which it was deemed imprudent, by several of the officers employed, to proceed farther in the attempt. In short, this famous expedition, after leaving a considerable garrison in Walcheren, returned home, without effecting a single object, in a very sickly state, having disappointed the hopes and expectations of the country. After keeping possession of the island of Walcheren for a considerable time, in the beginning of 1810, it was determined to abandon it altogether; which event, after destroying the batteries, &c. has been carried into execution.

On the 25th of October, 1809, his majesty entered upon the 50th year of his reign; an event which had not occurred in the English history since the reign of Edward III. The universal joy

that pervaded all ranks of people on this occasion, demonstrated, beyond the power of words, the patriotic and loyal sentiments of the people. The donations made to the poor were very general on this occasion; and the generous hospitality, for which Britons were ever famous, characterised a liberality which would be injured by the cold name of charity, or by any other name that conveys ideas of inequality, or dependence, and inferiority, that belong not to an occasion on which all feel alike. It must be recorded with pleasure, that upwards of 4000 poor debtors were liberated from the various prisons of the United Kingdoms, who will ever have occasion to remember this day with the most lively sentiments of gratitude. To his majesty's personal feelings, no doubt, this was a day of great satisfaction, as it proved to him that he not only reigned on the throne of his forefathers, but in the hearts of his subjects.

Having thus brought our summary down to the latest period we must close this long section, without being enabled to present our readers with the tidings of the probability of a speedy peace, which, we are afraid, is still at a great distance.

The millions of money which have been spent, the hundreds of thousands of levies destroyed, and the subversion of the most powerful states, which have resulted from this dreadful warfare, have proved that France is the greatest military nation on earth, but that Britain must ever be mistress of the ocean. While France has doubled the extent of her territories and the number of her population, though sunk again into the most abject slavery; England, resisting the various civilized powers which have united to destroy her, according as it suited their interests or their caprice, has annihilated, as it were, the navies of all Europe, has extended her colonial conquests to the remotest parts of the world, and now proudly stands forward, after a warfare of eighteen years, the only nation to which the subjugated powers of the continent can look up to for assistance! May she yet be the means of restoring peace upon a generous and permanent basis!

WALES.

Situation—Name—Boundaries—Divisions—Chief Towns—Climate, Soil—Produce—Face of the Country—Rivers—Lakes—Mountains—Natural Curiosities—Manners and Customs—Religion—Laws—Historical Summary, &c.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet, as it has a distinction in language and manners, we have thought it expedient to introduce it in a separate form.

Situation.—Wales is situated between 51 and 54 deg. north latitude, and between 2 deg. 41 min. and 4 deg. 56 min. west longitude; and contains 8125 square statute miles, with 67 inhabitants to each.

Name.—The Welch, according to the best antiquaries, are descendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby

obtained the name of *Galles*, or *Walles* (the *g* and *w* being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons), that is, "strangers." Their language is a dialect of the Celtic, or that of the ancient Gauls, probably little changed by time, and is highly extolled for its pathetic and descriptive powers.

Boundaries.—Wales was formerly bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were compelled gradually to retreat westward. It does not, however, appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned part of England.

Divisions.—This country is at present divided into 12 counties, of which the following table presents an accurate outline.

COUNTIES.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Stat. Miles.	Parishes.	Market Towns.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Members to Parliamt.	Chief Towns.
Anglesea . . .	24	18	402	74	3	6,680	33,806	2	Beaumaris.
Carnarvon . .	45	13	775	70	4	8,304	41,521	2	Carnarvon.
Denbigh . . .	48	18	731	57	3	12,621	60,352	2	Denbigh.
Flint	33	9	309	28	4	7,585	39,622	2	Mold.
Merioneth . .	35	25	691	37	4	5,787	29,506	1	Harlech.
Montgomery .	37	25	982	47	5	8,725	47,978	2	Welchpool.
Cardigan . . .	40	20	726	77	5	8,889	42,956	2	Cardigan.
Radnor	30	25	455	52	3	3,675	19,050	2	Radnor.
Pembroke . . .	30	25	575	145	8	11,869	56,280	3	Haverfordwest.
Carmarthen . .	40	20	926	145	6	13,449	67,317	2	Carmarthen.
Brecknock . .	35	30	731	62	4	6,315	31,633	2	Brecknock.
Glamorgan . .	45	25	822	118	6	14,225	71,525	2	Cardiff.

ANGLESEA,

An island situated at the north-west extremity of this principality, is separated from Carnarvonshire, by a long narrow strait, called the Menai; the other sides being entirely surrounded by the Irish Sea. It contains 257,280 square statute acres, about one half of which is in a state of cultivation. The southern part of the island is well-wooded, and presents a very pleasing appearance; but the northern part presents a dreary aspect, without trees or even hedges. The chief products are cattle and corn, of which, in favourable seasons, considerable quantities are exported. The wealth and population of this island have of late years received a considerable increase from the discovery of the

famous copper-mine at the north-east extremity, which is undoubtedly the largest bed of that metal in the known world. It has also mines of lead, green marble, &c. The climate is moist, but salubrious; many of the inhabitants living to a great age. The chief places are,

1. *Beaumaris*, a borough and the chief town of the island, is situated on the eastern coast, and pleasantly seated on a low land at the water's edge; being neat and well-built, and having one street very handsome. Here is a commodious and elegant town-hall and handsome church, containing some fine monuments. The harbour is good; but the trade is inconsiderable. In 1801 it was returned to parliament as containing 267 houses, and 1567 inhabitants.

2. *Holyhead*,

2. *Holyhead*, a sea-port town, is situated on a peninsula at the western extremity of the isle. It consists principally of one long street; the chief trade and support of the town is the intercourse of passengers to and from Ireland. The harbour is good, being sheltered by vast precipices, which nearly surround the town. It contains 473 houses, and 2132 inhabitants.

3. *Amlwch*, a sea-port town on the north-east shore of the island, which, till of late years, was only a small fishing-town; but, since the Pary's copper mines, in 1768, have been opened, which are situated about two miles from the town, the trade of the place has made a rapid increase: forty years ago there were but six houses in the whole parish. The harbour is chiefly artificial, being cut out of the rock, at much labour and expence; and is capable of containing about 30 vessels, of 200 tons each; but it is greatly exposed to the high north winds, which drive a very heavy sea. It was returned to parliament as containing 1625 houses, and 4977 inhabitants.

CARNARVONSHIRE,

To the south of Anglesea, contains 496,000 square statute acres, of which about 200,000 only are in a cultivated state, mostly in pasturage; the greater part of the remainder, consisting of deep dells, moors, and chasms, being quite a dreary region. The air is sharp and cold on the mountains; but salubrious in the valleys and on the sea-coast. The chief places are,

1. *Carnarvon*, a borough, and the county-town of this shire, is a pleasant and well built sea-port, carrying on a considerable trade with Ireland and the principal English ports. Its ancient castle, in which our first prince of Wales was born, is in the best preservation of any in the principality, and was formerly of great strength, and capable of holding a numerous garrison. The queen's bed-chamber is still shewn to all visitors, as well as the cradle in which Edward II. was rocked, a curious piece of antiquity. The town has a good harbour and quay, commanding a delightful view of the isle of Anglesea, and the circumjacent country. Of late years, it has been much frequented as a bathing place, during the season, on account of the elegant hot and cold baths erected by the earl of Uxbridge. In the parish church, which is nearly a mile out of the town, the service is always performed in the Welch language; but the chapel of ease, in the borough, has the English service. In 1801 this town contained 609 houses, and 3626 inhabitants.

2. *Bangor*, an ancient city and bishop's see, is situated on the Menai Strait, nearly opposite to Beaumaris, in Anglesea. In ancient times, it was so considerable as to be called *Bangor the Great*,

being defended by a strong castle; but it now has only one street, about half a mile long, which has an exceedingly neat appearance, being pleasantly situated in a vale, surrounded by mountains. The cathedral is a plain structure; and the palace and deanery accord with it. The services of the church are alternately performed in Welch and English. This city contained, in 1801, 304 houses, and 1770 inhabitants.

3. *Aberconway*, though at present an inconsiderable town, was formerly much more extensive. It is surrounded by a lofty wall, with towers, giving one of the most complete models of ancient fortification in the kingdom; and on a rocky promontory stand the remains of its once splendid castle, consisting of eight round towers, outworks, &c. now in ruins. The town is confined and ill built, though it has a picturesque appearance at a distance. It contains 182 houses, and 889 inhabitants.

DENBIGHSHIRE,

On the east of Carnarvonshire, contains 467,840 square statute acres, nearly the whole of which is in a state of cultivation. The western parts are rather mountainous, interspersed with many lakes and pleasant vales; but the other parts are more level. The beautiful vale of Clwyd, which stretches about twenty miles towards the sea, is in a high state of cultivation; and exhibits a number of pleasant villages and gentlemen's seats. The chief products of this county are cattle, corn, and cheese; the latter, in some parts, is said to be equal in quality to that made in Cheshire. This county also has some lead-mines on its borders. Wool forms a considerable part of its manufacture, being wrought into cloths of different quality, as well as stockings, particularly those called Angola hose. The air is extremely healthy; and the inhabitants in general long-lived. The chief places are,

1. *Denbigh*, a borough and the county-town of this shire, is seated at the foot of a craggy hill, near the middle of the vale of Clwyd. Though not large, it is well built, making a grand appearance at a distance. It has a tolerable traffic in shoes, gloves, and other articles in leather. On the summit of a rock, above the town, are the ruins of its ancient castle, built by Lacy earl of Lincoln, which was destroyed during the civil wars. Denbigh joins with Ruthin and Holt, in sending one member to parliament; the number of voters being about 500. It contains 534 houses, and 2301 inhabitants.

2. *Wrexham*, a considerable town, situated near the vale royal of Cheshire, on a very fertile and pleasant spot. The houses in general are well built; and the church is an elegant structure, equal to some
of

of the cathedrals in England. The inside is ornamented with several monuments, some of them exceedingly handsome. Here are also meeting-houses for the Presbyterians, Methodists, and others; together with a neat town-hall, and well endowed free-school. In the beginning of 1810, Sir Watkin W. Wynne presented to the inhabitants of this town, a building which he purchased and endowed for the education of 300 poor children upon the Lancaster plan.

Wrexham is a great mart for flannel; and the manufacturing of this article is the chief employment of the neighbouring poor; and in the vicinity of the town are several manufactories of warlike instruments, particularly a large cannon foundry. This town was returned as containing 580 houses, with 2575 inhabitants.

3. **Ruthin*, a market-town, situated on an eminence in the rich vale of Clwyd, was formerly surrounded with walls, but has now little more than a broad irregular street, leading to the market-house, near which stands the town-hall. It has a good free school, and the new town-goal is a commodious building. This town, like most others in North Wales, was formerly defended by a castle, of which some fragments are still to be seen. The church, which is a neat structure, was made collegiate in 1310; and here was a monastery of white friars. It contains 245 houses, and 1115 inhabitants.

FLINTSHIRE,

To the east of Denbighshire, contains 197,760 square statute acres, about 120,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. The soil of the low parts of the county produces good corn and grass, and is tolerably well wooded, abounding with coal and free-stone. The hills are barren on the surface, but within contain rich mines of lead and calamine. The vale of Mold is a rich and beautiful tract. Honey is very plentiful, of which the inhabitants make a wholesome beverage, called *metheglin*. The principal commerce of Flintshire arises from its mineral treasures, which are principally sent to Chester for exportation. The climate is sharp but salubrious. The principal places are,

1. *Mold*, the assize town of this county, is a neat place, situated in a hollow, surrounded by some rude hills. It consists principally of one long and very wide street, with some of the houses tolerably well built. The church, erected in the reign of Henry VIII. is a neat building, containing some curious monuments. Mold contains 682 houses, and 4235 inhabitants.

2. *Holywell*, a considerable town, celebrated on account of the well of St. Winifred, which, in the days of superstition, was held sacred, and many miraculous cures were attributed to its virtues.

The town consists principally of one long street of indifferently built houses. There are several lead, calamine, and copper mines in the neighbourhood, which are worked to great advantage, as well as an extensive cotton manufactory. This town contains 1093 houses and 5287 inhabitants.

3. *Hawarden*, a very considerable town on the borders of Cheshire. The houses are neat, and the streets well paved. Its principal wealth arises from several extensive potteries established in the neighbourhood, together with a considerable iron foundry. In 1805, the town and parish were returned as containing 760 houses, and 4014 inhabitants.

4. *St. Asaph*, an episcopal city, which stands at the confluence of a small river with the Clwyd. The city, though in the rich vale of Clwyd, is a poor ill built place: the cathedral has nothing remarkable, being a plain structure. It contains 272 houses, and 1513 inhabitants.

5. *Flint*, an ancient borough, and formerly the capital of the county. The town, though small and irregular, is commodiously situated near the estuary of the river Dee, which causes it to be much frequented in the summer season as a bathing place. It was formerly surrounded by a double wall and ditch, and is still remarkable for its castle, begun by Henry II. and finished by Edward I. which belongs to the crown. This place was returned as containing 309 houses, with 1169 inhabitants.

MERIONETHSHIRE,

To the south of Carnarvonshire, contains 442,240 square statute acres, of which about 350,000 are in a state of cultivation. The face of the country is varied throughout with the most romantic scenery, well clothed with wood, and fertile in objects that impress the mind with awful astonishment. In winter the air is very sharp, and the soil consequently poor; but the climate is healthy. The chief towns are,

1. *Harlech*, the county-town, situated on a rock near the sea, where is an harbour for ships. It is a mean place, thinly inhabited, but has a garrison for the security of the coast, and an old decayed castle, originally a strong fort of the ancient Britons, and is remarkable for being one of the last places in Wales that held out for the unfortunate Charles I. The population of this town was not returned to parliament in 1801.

2. *Dolgelly*, situated in a woody valley, by the Avon, at the foot of the great mountain Cader-Idris, which, by computation, is upwards of 1000 feet high, and one of the loftiest in Britain. The houses in general are low and irregular, but the church is a neat modern building. Here are several good inns for travellers, and a market for a

particular kind of coarse woollen cloth, fabricated in the neighbourhood. Here were 630 houses, and 2949 inhabitants, in 1801.

3. *Bala*, an ancient town, situate at the bottom of a small lake called Pemble Meer, which is four miles in length, and one in breadth, and abounding with fish. The town consists principally of one long street, having no structure worthy particular notice; but it has a tolerable traffic in knit stockings and Welch flannels. The number of houses was 486, with 2415 inhabitants.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE,

To the east of Merioneth, contains 628,480 square statute acres, about 400,000 of which are in a cultivated state. Though barren and mountainous in many parts, yet it has a greater mixture of fertile vale and plain than many of the neighbouring counties. The riches of the county proceed from its sheep and wool, and the flannels and coarse cloth manufactured therefrom. The hilly tracks are almost entirely sheep-walks, on which large flocks are driven from distant parts to feed during summer, the farms in the vallies being only a sort of appendages for winter habitation and provisions. The climate is pleasant and salubrious, and the inhabitants are in general a healthy race. The chief places are,

1. *Welchpool*, by far the largest and best built town in the county, situated on a low hill near the banks of the Severn. The streets are uniform, and several of the houses well built; but the church, though a modern structure, is in so low a situation, that the upper part of the church-yard is nearly on a level with the roof of the building. Here is a neat and convenient market-house, with a good hall, in which the assizes for the county are held. In the town and neighbourhood are extensive manufactories of flannels and baize. In 1801 here were 530 houses, and 2872 inhabitants.

2. *Montgomery*, a borough and market town, situated on the ascent of a hill, near the right bank of the Severn, was formerly of much greater consequence than at present, having been surrounded with walls. Of late years, however, it has began to recover its consequence, having received considerable improvement from the erection of several large and handsome buildings. The church is a handsome structure, in the form of a cross, being dedicated to St. Nicholas. In the neighbourhood are the remains of a most magnificent castle. In 1801 this town contained 155 houses, and 972 inhabitants.

CARDIGANSHIRE,

To the south of Merionethshire, contains 464,640 square statute acres, about 200,000 of

which are in a state of cultivation. The north and eastern parts are rugged and barren, feeding numerous herds of sheep and black cattle; but the eastern parts are fertile and pleasant. The air in general is mild and temperate. The chief towns are,

1. *Cardigan*, an ancient borough, and the county-town of this shire, stands near the mouth of the river Teivey, on the Irish Channel, being called by the Welch *Aberteivey*, i. e. a town at the mouth of the Teivey, over which it has a good stone bridge of five arches. The houses are neat, being mostly white-washed; and the streets are regular and well paved. The county-goal, a new building, stands at the entrance of the town, and is a spacious structure. The church is a stately edifice, and the town-hall has a good appearance. The castle, now in ruins, appears to have been a most extensive structure. In 1801 Cardigan contained 415 houses, with 1911 inhabitants.

2. *Aberystwith*, a market and sea-port town, is situated on the river Rydall, near its confluence with the Istwith, where it falls into the sea. It was formerly surrounded with walls, and had a castle, now in ruins. The streets are steep and rugged, with the houses built chiefly of black slate. Here is a neat new bridge over the Rydall. The walks and rides in the vicinity of the town are remarkably pleasant; and it has long been a place of great resort for sea-bathing. It has a most extensive fishery along the coast, with an excellent market. It contained 325 houses, and 1758 inhabitants.

RADNORSHIRE,

To the east of Cardigan, contains 291,200 square statute acres, about 190,000 of which are in a cultivated state. The eastern and southern parts are tolerably level and productive of corn; while the other parts are rude and mountainous, producing vast herds of cattle and sheep. The north-western angle of this county is quite a desert, being almost impassable. The climate is cold, but salubrious. The principal towns are,

1. *Radnor*, or as it is commonly called *New Radnor*, a small insignificant place, consisting of one street of ill built houses. It contains 68 houses, and 347 inhabitants.

2. *Presteign*, the largest town in the county, stands in a rich vale on the banks of the river Lug, near its entrance into the county of Hereford. It was only a pitiful village, but owing to the countenance of the bishops of St. David's, it soon eclipsed the county-town. The houses are neat, and the streets regular. The church contains a well-wrought tapestry altar-piece, representing our Saviour's entrance into Jerusalem. In 1801, here were 194 houses, with 1094 inhabitants.

PEMBROKESHIRE,

To the south-west of Cardigan, contains 368,000 square statute acres, about 220,000 of which are in a cultivated state. A great part of this county is plain, and tolerably fertile, consisting of rich meadow and arable land, producing large crops of grain. The climate is reckoned very temperate. The chief places are,

1. *Haverfordwest*, an ancient borough, and the county-town of this shire, standing on the banks of the navigable part of the Dungleddy river. It is built on the side of a hill, so as to be highly inconvenient, if not dangerous, for carriages and horses, and the more so, as the streets are badly paved. It has some good houses, especially in the upper part; but the irregularity of the avenues, and the narrowness of all except one or two, with the houses built confusedly above one another, the lower windows of some looking down upon the roofs of others, render it intricate and unsightly in the entrance. The approach is striking; the houses are so white, that it may be compared to a town built with cards on the side of a hill; for the very roofs are white, not a chimney being discoloured with smoke, owing to the nature of the coals they burn. The market of this town is large; and the supply of provisions (fine fish especially) abundant. Here are three parish churches, besides one which stands out of the town; a custom house, at which vessels of large burden can unload; and a good stone bridge over the river. The castle is a stately object from the bridge; though it has been considerably disfigured by the conversion of a part of it into the county-gaol. The Moravian brethren are a considerable body in this town; and here are places of worship for Methodists and Dissenters. In 1801 this borough contained 593 houses, with 2880 inhabitants.

2. *Pembroke*, an ancient borough and market-town, consisting of two parishes, is situated on a branch of Milford Haven, and consists of one long street of decent houses. The town is watered by two small rivers, over which are handsome bridges; it was formerly surrounded with walls, and had a magnificent castle, the ruins of which still remain, on a rock at the west end of the town: it is of Norman architecture; the principal tower, of great height, is perfect, with its stone vaulted roof remaining; the walls, in some parts, are fourteen feet thick. In conjunction with Tenby and Whiston, this town sends one member to parliament. It contains 323 houses, and 1842 inhabitants.

3. *Fishgourd* is a sea-port standing near the fall of Gwaine into the sea, which forms a spacious and safe bay. It has a neat quay, with every convenience for ship-building. Beside the church, which

is a handsome building in the centre of the town, here is a neat chapel for the Wesleyan Methodists. A considerable trade in the cure of herrings is carried on in the town; and above 50 sail of small vessels trade from hence to various parts of Wales, with butter and corn. This place is remarkable for the landing of a small body of French troops in 1797, who were all taken prisoners. It contains 344 houses, with 1503 inhabitants.

4. *St. David's*, an ancient city, situated near a promontory called St. David's Head. To this city it was that St. David is said to have translated the metropolitan see of Wales, from Caerleon. The city itself now contains no more than 100 mean cottages; and the cathedral and palace present only the ruins of their former splendor. In 1801 this city and the suburbs contained 414 houses, and 1803 inhabitants.

CARMARTHENSHIRE,

On the north-east of Pembroke, contains 592,640 square statute acres, about 420,000 of which are in a cultivated state. The general surface is hilly, and the north and eastern parts rise into mountains. The climate is not very favourable to wheat; but barley and oats succeed remarkably well, vast quantities being shipped annually to Bristol. It affords good pasturage, and much butter is exported. The air in the north is keen and piercing; but, towards the south, mild and salubrious. The chief towns are,

1. **Carmarthen*, an ancient borough, and the county-town of this shire, is beautifully situated on the river Towey, over which it has a fine stone bridge of six arches. It is a place of great antiquity, having been a Roman station. It was formerly surrounded with walls, and had a strong castle, the gate of which still remains: a handsome county-gaol of hewn stone occupies the site of the remainder of this fabric. The houses of this town are well built, and several of the streets are spacious. The church is a large and heavy fabric, on the eastern side of the town; and here are neat places of worship for Methodists and Dissenters of all denominations. It is inhabited by many genteel families, and here the prince of Wales holds his courts of exchequer and chancery for the principality, of which it may, with propriety, be said to be the capital. The trade of this town is very considerable, the river being navigable for vessels of small burden, from the sea. The people in this town and neighbourhood burn balls, instead of coals, made of the dust of culm, or stone-coal, mixed with a proper quantity of clay, and afterwards dried; they cast out a great heat, and are very cheap. The Welch are said much to revere this place, it having given birth to their famous prophet Merlin. Carmarthen was first erected

erected into a borough by Henry VIII.; and James I. granted it a charter of incorporation as a town and county of itself, with power to make bye-laws. It sends one member to parliament, and is governed by a mayor, six justices, &c. In the neighbourhood are several iron and tin-mines, and a large smelting-house, belonging to Lord Cawdor. The number of houses in 1801 were 930, with 5548 inhabitants.

2. *Kidwelly*, a small market-town, situated on both sides of the river Ravendraoth, at a small distance from Carmarthen Bay. It is divided into the old and new town, joined by a bridge over the river. It has a handsome church, with a beautiful spire steeple, and a good grammar school. It was formerly noted for its cloth manufacture; but its chief traffic now is in coals and tin, in which articles it carries on a considerable trade to all parts of the kingdom. The town is irregularly built, and is in a decayed state. In 1801 it had 311 houses, and 1388 inhabitants.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE,

To the east of Carmarthen, contains 467,840 square statute acres, about 250,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. It is one of the most mountainous counties in Wales; the soil of it is very stony, but the streams descending from thence into the vallies, render them fruitful. The air is keen, but wholesome. The chief places are,

1. *Brecknock*, or *Brecon*, the capital, situated almost in the centre of the county, is the place where the assizes are held. It stands at the confluence of the rivers Houdhy and Uske, over which it has a good stone bridge. The streets are narrow, dirty, and irregular, and the houses in general mean. This place has some share in the woollen manufacture. The ruins of its castle, built by Bernard de Newmarch, in the reign of William Rufus, remain. Its markets are well supplied with cattle, corn, and other provisions. Brecknock Priory was founded in the reign of Henry I. by Bernard de Newmarch; it is now a collegiate church, and still a magnificent building, situated on an eminence, and built in the form of a cross. There are two other churches. In 1801 here were 499 houses, and 2546 inhabitants.

2. *Hay*, a small market-town on the river Wye, over which it had a fine stone bridge of seven arches, which was unfortunately destroyed by a flood in 1795. The town has been in a decayed state since the time of Owen Glendower, who burnt it. It has a manufacture of thread-lace, and contained 314 houses, and 1170 inhabitants.

GLAMORGANSHIRE,

To the south of Brecon, contains 526,080 square

statute acres, 400,000 of which are in a state of cultivation. On the north and north-east it is very mountainous; and the soil varies, being in some places a mere rock, and in others full of coal and iron. On the south, and towards the sea, it opens into a spacious plain, which produces excellent grain. The chief places are,

1. **Cardiff*, the capital, where the assizes are held, has a handsome bridge of five arches over the Taff, to which small vessels may come up. It is a well built town, the streets in general being composed of good houses; and though it comprehends two parishes, has but one church. It has a good trade with Bristol, and plentiful markets and fairs for corn, cattle, sheep, horses, and swine. The harbour, three miles below the town, is very commodious for vessels detained in the Bristol Channel by contrary winds. In 1801 here were 314 houses, with 1870 inhabitants.

2. **Swansea*, an ancient sea-port and market-town, is situated between two hills, at the mouth of the river Towey; it is built on a semicircular rising bank, being near a mile and a half in length, and has a handsome appearance. The houses are modern and commodious, and the streets well paved. The remains of its old castle are now converted into a gaol and workhouse. The town-hall is a modern fabric; near which is the new market, erected in 1774. The church is modern and well built, having a plain tower. Here are two extensive breweries, a pottery, an iron foundery, two roperies, and a good dry dock, employing a number of hands. This place has a considerable trade in the export of coals, iron ore, and stone, all found on the banks of the Towey. There are also seven large copperas houses at a small distance from the town, smelting annually 45,000 tons of metal, and consuming 70,000 chaldrons of coals. Of late years Swansea has been much frequented as a bathing-place. In 1801 it contained 1182 houses, and 6099 inhabitants.

3. **Neath*, a considerable town, standing near the estuary of a small river of the same name, carries on a great trade in nearly the same commodities as Swansea. The streets are extremely irregular and narrow; and the houses, with a few exceptions, ill built. A canal has lately been cut from hence into the interior of the country. It contained 540 houses, with 2502 inhabitants.

4. **Merthyr Tydvile*, a considerable town, situated on the northern side of the county, a few years ago was only a mere village. It is situated in the midst of several mines of coal and iron, in which it is supposed there are forged weekly upwards of 250 tons of iron, with a consumption of as many coals. At Mr. Crawshaw's iron works there has been erected an overshot wheel, said to be the largest in the world: it is 50 feet in diameter, entirely

tirely of cast-iron, and cost £4000. A canal has been cut from hence to Cardiff. In 1801 this town contained 240 houses, and 1256 inhabitants; but it has greatly increased since that period, being now supposed to contain upwards of 6000 persons.

5. *Llandaff*, an ancient city, situated on the river Taff, two miles from Cardiff. It was once a considerable place, but is now gone to decay. The cathedral was formerly a fine structure, which, owing to its great antiquity, is much divested of its ancient splendour. This place in 1801 had 191 houses, and 860 inhabitants.

The six former of those counties which we have mentioned, are generally called, by way of distinction, NORTH WALES, and the six latter, SOUTH WALES.

Climate, Soil, &c.—We have already, in the description of the different counties, presented our readers with the particulars of the climate of each. It will only be necessary here to add, in a general way, that the seasons are nearly the same as in the northern parts of England. The counties bordering on the sea-coast, have a mild air, but are very wet; and the interior parts have the usual sharpness of other mountainous regions. The soil, as has already been shewn, is extremely various, being an almost continued range of mountains, more or less wild and lofty, interspersed with vallies equally extensive and fertile. In point of agricultural improvement and fertility, the district of South Wales has by far the superiority over the North; and although a great deal of the land is totally unfit for cultivation, its produce is said to be fully sufficient for its abstemious inhabitants.

Animal, Vegetable, and Mineral Productions.—In these particulars Wales differs little from the northern counties of England. The horses are smaller, but can endure vast fatigue; the black cattle are likewise diminutive, but extremely well flavoured; their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. The sheep are small, and their fleeces of a coarse quality; but the mutton is inferior to none in the kingdom. Great numbers of goats are fed on the mountains, from whose milk butter and cheese are made, which are greatly relished by the inhabitants of the Alpine regions of Carnarvonshire, and other adjacent counties. Wolves were formerly in great numbers in this country; but they have long been exterminated, through the policy of the English government, who, instead of the tribute usually required, changed the demand into a certain number of wolves' heads. In the mountains wild foxes abound, together with such other smaller animals

and birds as are to be met with in the north of England. The vegetable productions of Wales are similar to those of all mountainous regions; added to which, most of the exotic and horticultural plants to be met with in Britain thrive and flourish. But that which affords one of the greatest sources of wealth to this country, is its minerals, Wales producing abundance of stone, slate, lead, and copper. The Pary's mine of the latter metal, in the island of Anglesea, is not wrought in the common method of subterranean mines, but open like a stone quarry, which affords the traveller an opportunity of seeing the different operations, without the disagreeable ceremony of being let down in a bucket. The quantity of ore that it yields is prodigious, and the treasure to the proprietors almost inexhaustible. This mine is about a mile in circumference, and in it are employed about 1300 men in the different operations of digging, smelting, and refining the copper. The numberless caverns perforated in the side of the mountain, the various occupations of the labourers, the ascent and descent of innumerable baskets filled with the ore, and the repeated echo of the blast of gunpowder to force it from the rock, afford at once a scene new and striking, and calculated to leave a deep impression upon the mind. Besides copper, this mountain yields a lead ore rich in silver, the vitriolic water of which changes the colour of steel or iron, if dipped in it, to that of copper.

Mountains.—Snowden, in Carnarvonshire, is allowed to be the highest mountain in the principality: it is the centre of a chain of hills stretching from Bardsay Island to Conway Bay. The mass of rock that goes by the distinguishing name of Snowden, is composed of various cliffs, of different heights, rising one above another; the highest point being 3600 feet above the high water mark of Carnarvon quay. It is erroneously stated by some, that snow is to be found all the year round upon this mountain; but it is seldom seen before October, and scarcely melted till the latter end of June. Penmanmawr is another stupendous mountain, situated between Conway and Bangor in the same county. It rises nearly 1400 feet perpendicular from the level of the sea; and from its sides project large masses of rock, of various shapes, fragments of which often roll down into the abyss below: yet a road is cut on a shelf of this precipice, guarded by walls, which is passed in safety, though the rocks above, and the tremendous gulf below, seem to threaten instant destruction. Cader Idris is another considerable mountain in Merionethshire, near Dolgelly, being upwards of 1000 feet high, at the foot of which are several remarkable pools, some of which are 150 yards deep. The above, with some others of minor consequence, may be said to be the principal

pal eminences in the country, the generally mountainous surface of which, no doubt, presented a barrier to the conquest of this country by the Roman, Saxon, or Norman powers.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers are the Severn, the Dee, the Wye, the Uske, the Conway, the Clwyd, and the Towey. The chief lakes are Brecon Mere, about two miles across each way, containing vast quantities of fish; and Llyn Tegol, near Bela in Merionethshire, of which we have already given a description, in our remarks upon that town.

Natural Curiosities.—Among the principal natural curiosities of this country are the following:

Near the town of Holywell, in Flintshire, is a remarkable well, known by the name of St. Winifred's Well; at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. It lies at the bottom of three large hills, and is covered by a small Gothic building, said to have been erected by the countess of Richmond, mother of Henry VII. The Gothic work, on the outside of the building, which forms a canopy to the well, is very handsome. The spring boils with vast impetuosity out of the rock, and forms a beautiful polygonal bason; after which it descends into a deep hollow vale, below the town, with such rapidity, that it turns a number of cotton, brass, and copper-mills. It is supposed to be one of the finest springs in the British dominions, being said to throw out 20 tons of water in a minute! It never freezes, or scarcely varies in the quantity of water, either in dry or rainy seasons.

At a small village called Newton, in Glamorgan-shire, is a remarkable spring near the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the tide; and near Carmarthen is a fountain, which, like the sea, ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. Near the forge of Melincourt, in the north of Glamorgan-shire, is the beautiful cataract of Cledaugh. At the extremity of a wide and gloomy chasm, a black perpendicular rock, about 150 feet high, forms part of a large circle: through the midst of this arch, rushes down the river, in one mighty sheet, without a single break, into the bason below; after which it rolls among irregular crags, and rages down a deep descent, till it falls into the river Neath, a little distance above the town of that name.

National Character, Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants.—The inhabitants of Wales, though not in general wealthy, are provided with all the necessaries and many of the conveniences of life. They are, if possible, more jealous of their liberties than the English, and far more irascible, but their anger soon abates; and they are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of

carrying back their pedigrees to the most remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuscripts, some of which they pretend to be coeval with the beginning of the Christian æra. It is certain, however, that great part of their history, especially the ecclesiastical, is more ancient, and better attested, than that of the Anglo-Saxon. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thaliessin, who lived about the year 450, and whose works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the history which makes the present Welch the descendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius seems to have influenced the ancient Welch with an enthusiasm for independence; for which reason Edward I. is said to have made a general massacre of the bards: an inhumanity which was characteristic of that ambitious prince. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, and are remarkable for still maintaining their ancient hospitality, and their strict adherence to ancient customs and manners. All the better sort of the Welch speak the English language, though numbers of them understand the Welch.

We extract the following entertaining account of the manners, customs, and superstition of the modern Welch, from a recent traveller, in an account of a tour through North Wales.

In those mountainous or secluded parts of the country of Wales that are scarcely known to the English tourist, where their manners still retain the greatest degree of originality, the lower class of the inhabitants appear to possess an innocence and simplicity of character, unknown in the populous parts of our own country; and amongst these it is that we are to search for that native hospitality, so much boasted of by the Welch writers: but, wherever the English have had frequent communication, from their being in general so profuse of their money, and from the temptation this has afforded to practise impositions on them, I have found people but little differing from the like class among us. On the great roads, they seem to take a pride in over-reaching, in most of their little bargains, their Saxon neighbours, as they denominate the English. A Welch gentleman informed me (and in many instances I have experienced its truth), that it is a common practice amongst them to ask nearly as much more for an article as they mean to take; and with those who know them, it is always usual to offer them less. This is the case in some measure in our own country, but certainly not so frequently as in Wales.

The Welch people have commonly a rustic bashfulness and reserve, which, by strangers unused to their manners, has been often mistaken for sullenness.

ness. They are generally said to be very irascible: this may be so; but I am inclined to think, that the natural rapidity of their expression, in a language not understood, has alone been frequently construed into passion, when there has been nothing of the kind. Persons who form ideas from the opinions of others, without taking the pains to make observations for themselves, are very often misled; and such, I am confident, has been the case a thousand times, in the judgments that have been formed of this circumstance.

They have every appearance of being most miserably poor. Their cottages are frequently constructed of stones, whose interstices are filled up with peat or mud; and so careful are they of glass, that their windows are scarcely large enough to light around their wretched sheds.

Their general food is bread, cheese, and milk, and sometimes what they call *flummery*, which is made of oatmeal and milk mixed together and then boiled. Animal food, or ale, are not among their usual fare.

The women in the mountainous parts are generally about the middle size, though more frequently below than above it; and though their features are often very pretty, their complexions are for the most part somewhat sallow. They wear long blue cloaks, that descend almost to their feet; these they are seldom to be seen without, even in the very hottest weather; owing, most probably, to the sudden showers, which the attraction of the mountains renders them likely to be taken in. In North Wales they have all hats, similar to those of the men; and they wear blue stockings, without any feet to them, which they keep down by a kind of loop that is put round one of their toes. In the most unfrequented parts they seldom wear any shoes, except on a Sunday, or the market-day, and even then they often carry them in their hands, as they go along the roads. I have seen them by six or eight together, seated on the bank of a rivulet, after their journies from the neighbouring villages, washing their feet before they entered the towns. In these journies, if their hands are not otherwise employed, they generally occupy their time in knitting; and I have sometimes seen that even a heavy fall of rain would not compel them to give it up. Their employment within doors is chiefly in spinning wool.

The Welch people are naturally inquisitive and curious; but this is by no means a circumstance peculiar to this country. In all wild and unfrequented parts of the world it is the same; and it is only in such parts of Wales that this disposition is the most observable. Dr. Franklin has told us that this curiosity prevailed so much in America, that when he travelled in that country, if he only wished to ask for the road, he found it expedient

to save time, by prefacing his question with—"My name is Benjamin Franklin—by trade a printer—am come from such a place—am going to such a place—and now, which is my road?" In all travels through unfrequented countries we find it very common; and from the inquisitive disposition of men in general, where novelty lays such hold upon their attention, it would even seem strange were we not to find it so.

They are much inclined to superstition: but in all countries there are weak and foolish people. In England many of our peasantry are ready to swallow, with the most credulous avidity, any ridiculous stories of ghosts, hobgoblins, or fairies. In Wales it is more general, and the people are certainly more credulous than the generality of the English. There are very few of the mountaineers who have not by heart a whole string of legendary tales of those disembodied beings.

The Roman cavern, in Llanymynech hill, called Ogo, has been long noted as the residence of a clan of the fairy tribe, of whom the villagers relate many surprising and mischievous tricks. They have listened at the mouth of the cave, and have sometimes even heard them in conversation, but always in such low whispers, that their words have never been distinguishable. The stream that runs across it is celebrated as being the place in which they have been heard to wash their clothes, and do several other kinds of work.

These busy little folk seem to be somewhat allied to what are called *knockers*, which by the Welch are believed to be a species of aerial beings, that are heard under ground, in or near mines, who by their noises direct the miners where to find a rich vein. The following extraordinary account of them is from a letter of Mr. Lewis Morris, to his brother, Mr. William Morris, comptroller of the customs at Holyhead. I will make no comment upon it, and only preface it by observing, that Mr. Morris was a very learned and sensible man, and a person whose judgment is esteemed of great weight, by every one who has been either acquainted with him or his writings.

"People who know very little of art, or sciences, or the powers of nature (which, in other words, are the powers of the Author of Nature), will laugh at us Cardiganshire miners, who maintain the existence of *knockers* in mines, a kind of good-natured impalpable people, not to be seen, but heard, and who seem to us to work in the mines; that is to say, they are types, or forerunners of working in mines, as dreams are of some accidents which happen to us. The barometer falls before rain or storms. If we did not know the construction of it, we should call it a kind of dream that foretels rain; but we know it is natural, and produced by natural means comprehended by us. Now, how are

are we sure, or any body sure, but that our dreams are produced by the same natural means? There is some faint resemblance of this in the sense of hearing; the bird is killed before we hear the report of the gun. However this is, I must speak well of these *knockers*, for they have actually stood my very good friends, whether they are aerial beings, called spirits, or whether they are a people made of matter, not to be felt by our gross bodies, as air and fire, and the like.

“Before the discovery of *Esguir y Mwyn* mine, these little people, as we call them here, worked hard there day and night; and there are abundance of honest sober people, who have heard them, and some persons who have no notion of them, or of mines either; but, after the discovery of the great ore, they were heard no more.

“When I began to work at *Llwyn Llwyd*, they worked so fresh there for a considerable time, that they even frightened some young workmen out of the work. This was when we were driving levels, and before we had got any ore; but when we came to the ore, they then gave over, and I heard no more talk of them.

“Our oldminers are no more concerned at hearing them *blasting*, boring holes, landing *deads*, &c. than if they were some of their own people: and a single miner will stay in the work in the dead of the night, without any man near him and never think of any fear or harm they will do him; for they have a notion, that the *knockers* are of their own profession, and are a harmless people who mean well. Three or four miners together shall hear them sometimes; but if the miners stop to take notice of them, the *knockers* will also stop; but let the miners go on at their own work, suppose it is *boring*, the *knockers* will go on as brisk as can be, in landing, *blasting*, or beating down the *loose*; and they were always heard a little from them before they came to the ore.

“These are odd assertions, but they are certainly facts, though we cannot and do not pretend to account for them. We have now very good ore at *Llwyn Llwyd*, where the *knockers* were heard to work, but have now yielded up the place, and are no more heard. Let who will laugh, we have the greatest reason to rejoice, and thank the *knockers*, or rather God, who sends us these notices.”

An intelligent friend of mine informs me that these noises of the *knockers*, as they are called, have very lately been heard in the parish of Llanvihangel Ysgeiviog, in Anglesea, where they continued at different intervals for some weeks. In accounting for these noises, it has been observed, that they probably proceed either from the echo of the miners at work, or from the dropping of water: but these seem by no means sufficient, if Mr. Morris's assertion be true, that while the miners

are going on with one kind of work, they are going on with another; while, for instance, as he says, the miners are *boring*, they are *blasting*, the former certainly cannot be true; and the *blasting* entirely puts the latter conjecture out of the question, for the droppings of water could never produce any effect of that kind. As I am only acquainted with the subject from report, I am under the necessity of leaving the elucidation of these extraordinary facts to some who have better opportunities of enquiring into them. I have only to express a hope that the subject will not be neglected, and that those who reside in any neighbourhood where they are heard will enquire into them carefully, and, if possible, give to the world a more accurate account of them than the present.

As soon as it is dark, on the evening before Michaelmas-day, the Welch people kindle great fires near their houses, and generally, where they can have it, on a large stone upon an eminence. These they call *coelcerth*, or bonfires; and Rowlands, in his *Mona*, supposes this custom to have originated with the Druids, and to have been intended by them as an offering of thanksgiving for the fruits of the harvest. The Druids had also another at the vernal equinox, to implore a blessing from the Deity on the fruits of the earth. On Michaelmas-eve several hundreds of these fires may sometimes be seen at once, round each of which are numbers of the labouring people dancing hand in hand, “in merry glee,” shouting and singing in the most riotous and frantic manner. In many places they retain a custom of each throwing stones or nuts into the flame, by which they pretend to foretel the good or ill luck that will attend them the ensuing year.

On the eve of St. John the Baptist, they fix sprigs of the plant called St. John's wort over their doors, and sometimes over their windows, in order to purify their houses, and by that means drive away all fiends and evil spirits, in the same manner as the Druids were accustomed to do with vervain.

They have a firm belief in witches; and, consequently, many old women, merely because they happen to be old and ugly, are forced to bear all the blame of the cows not yielding milk, or of the butter not forming in the churn. They are also believed to possess the power of inflicting any disorder they think proper on man and beast, and that they never neglect to do it, if they have been offended. There are now living two celebrated conjurors, or fortune-tellers, who are consulted by all the neighbours when their goods or cattle are missing; these are Sionet Gorn of Denbigh, and Dick Smot of Oswestry.

The young people have many pretended modes of foretelling their future sweethearts; but most of these

these being common also amongst the peasantry of our own country, it is needless to repeat them.

I have been informed, that a disorder, something similar to St. Anthony's fire, called *Yr Eryr*, "the eagle," is supposed by the labouring people to be always cured by the following kind of charm. A man or woman, whose father, grandfather, or great grandfather, have eaten the flesh of that bird, is to spit upon the part affected, and rub it, and they say it will certainly go away. A servant-girl, belonging to a friend of mine, who resides in Wales, says she was cured of this complaint, by an old man, whose grandfather had eaten of an eagle's flesh; he made use also of some words to assist in the charm, which she did not comprehend.

There is an opinion very commonly received within the diocese of St. David's, in Pembroke-shire, that a short time before the death of any person, a light is frequently seen proceeding from the house, and even sometimes from the bed, where the sick person lies, and pursues its way to the church where the corpse is to be interred, precisely in the same track in which the funeral is afterwards to follow. This light is called *canwyll corph*, or the corpse candle.

I have been told of a strange custom that prevails in some parts of North Wales, which, no doubt, the clergy study to abolish as much as lies in their power. When any person supposes himself highly injured, it is not uncommon for him to repair to some church, dedicated to a celebrated saint, as Llan Elian in Anglesea, and Clynog in Carnarvonshire, and there, as it is termed, to *offer* his enemy. He kneels down on his bare knees in the church, and, offering a piece of money to the saint, utters the most virulent imprecations, calling down curses and misfortunes upon the offender and his family for generations to come, all which they have a firm belief will come to pass. Sometimes, instead of a church, they repair to some of the sacred wells that are dedicated to the saints. Mr. Pennant mentions his being threatened by a fellow, who fancied he had been injured by him "with the vengeance of St. Elian, and a journey to his well, to curse him with effect."

Some of these wells are in great repute for the cure of diseases, by means of the intercession of the saint. The saints are also applied to when any kind of goods are lost, and are made the instruments of recovering them, or of discovering the thief who has stolen them.

St. George had formerly, in the parish of Aber-gely, in Carnarvonshire, his holy well, at which this British Mars had his offering of horses; for the rich were, at certain times, accustomed to offer one, to secure his blessing on all the rest. St. George was the tutelar saint of those animals; and all that were distempered were brought to this

well, sprinkled with the water, and had this blessing bestowed, *Rhad Duw a Saint Siors arnat*, "the blessing of God and St. George be on thee."

In the churches, when the name of the devil occurred, an universal spitting used formerly to seize the congregation, as if in contempt of that evil spirit; and whenever Judas was mentioned, they expressed their abhorrence of him by smiting their breast.

If a *flynnon vair*, or well of our lady, or any other saint, was near, the water for baptism was always brought from thence; and, after the ceremony was over, old women were very fond of washing their eyes in the water of the font.

Upon Christmas-day, about three o'clock in the morning, most of the parishioners assembled in the church, and after prayers and a sermon, continued there singing psalms and hymns with great devotion till it was day-light; and if, through age or infirmity, any were disabled from attending, they never failed having prayers at home, and carols on our Saviour's nativity. The former part of the custom is still in some places preserved, but too often perverted into intemperance. This act of devotion is called *pulgen*, or the *crowing of the cock*. For, during the holy season, the cock was supposed to exert his power throughout the night; from which, undoubtedly, originated the Welch word *pulgen*, as applied to this custom.

The lower class of people of Carnarvonshire, Anglesea, and part of Merionethshire, have a mode of courtship which, till within these few years, was scarcely ever heard of in this kingdom. The lover generally comes, under the shadow of the night, and is taken without any kind of reserve into the bed of his fair one. Here, as it is generally understood, with part of his clothes still on, he breathes his tender passion, and "tells how true he loves." This custom seems to have originated in the scarcity of fuel, and in the disagreeableness of sitting together, in cold weather, without a fire. Much has been said of the innocence with which those meetings are conducted: it may be so in some cases; but it is certainly not an uncommon thing for a son and heir to be brought into the world within two or three months after the marriage ceremony has taken place. No notice seems however to be taken of it, provided the marriage is over before the living witness is brought to light. As this custom is entirely confined to the labouring people, it is not so pregnant with danger as it might otherwise be supposed; for, both parties being poor, they are constrained to marry, in order to secure their reputation, and by that means a method of getting a livelihood.

Their weddings are generally attended with noise and riot, being dedicated by the guests to little else than drinking and singing. On the appointed

pointed day, as many of the neighbours and friends as can be collected together attend the couple to the church, and from thence, after the ceremony, home again. Here a collection is made amongst the guests, to defray the expences of the occasion, and frequently to aid in establishing the new married couple in the world. At these times they are often so extravagant that many of them have literally to starve, perhaps for near a month afterwards, in order to make up the sum that they thus foolishly expend; and it is from imprudencies of this kind, and the smallness of their earnings, that the people are kept so miserably poor. In South Wales, previous to their weddings, a herald with a crook or wand, adorned with ribbands, sometimes goes the circuit of the neighbourhood, and makes his "bidding" or invitation, in a prescribed form. But the knight-errant cavalcade on horseback—the carrying off the bride—the rescue—the wordy war, in rhyme, between the parties, &c. which formed a singular spectacle of mock contest at the celebration of nuptials, is now almost, if not altogether, laid aside, throughout every part of the principality.

The funerals are also attended by great crowds of people, all the relatives and neighbours of the person deceased being invited. The custom of the congregation making offerings of money on those occasions, is, I believe, peculiar to North Wales, and has, no doubt, been retained from the Roman Catholic religion, where the money was given for singing of mass for the soul of the deceased. It is now only considered as a mark of respect paid to the clergyman: for, if he is not liked, the offerings are made on the coffin, at the door of the house where the person resided, and distributed amongst the poor relatives. But when they are made in the church, the morning or evening service for the day is first read; the clergyman reading two prayers from the funeral service, and then the general thanksgiving, and the rest of the service, at the altar table. When the prayers are concluded, the next of kin to the deceased comes forward, and puts down sixpence, or a shilling, if they are poor; but where they are more opulent, half a crown, or a crown, and sometimes even so much as a guinea. This example is followed by the other relatives, and afterwards by the rest of the congregation that are able, who advance in turns, and offer. When the offering of silver is ended, there is a short pause, after which those who are not able to afford more come forward, and put down each a penny (a half-penny not being admitted.) The collections thus made amount sometimes to ten or fifteen pounds; but where the relatives are indigent, to not more than three or four shillings. If the relatives are poor, but particularly where a man or woman is left with a

number of children, the money is usually given to them by the clergyman. After the collection is entirely finished, the remainder of the burial service is read, and the awful ceremony is closed. The offerings at Llanbublic and Carnarvon are said, upon an average, to amount to seventy-five or eighty pounds a year. I have been told that it is the intention of the clergy of North Wales to abolish this custom, if possible.

It is usual in Carnarvonshire, and some other parts of North Wales, for the nearest female relative of the deceased, be she widow, mother, sister, or daughter, to pay some poor person of the same sex, and nearly of the same age with the deceased, for procuring slips of yew, box, and other evergreens, to strew over and ornament the grave, for some weeks after the interment; and, in some instances, for weeding and adorning it, on the eves of Easter, Whitsuntide, Christmas, and some other particular days, for a year or two afterwards. The money is given to a person on a plate, at the door of the house where the body is standing on a bier. The gift is called *diodyls*; for formerly, instead of it, the person used to receive from the hand of the female relative a cheese with a piece of money stuck in it, and some white bread, and afterwards a cup of drink; but this practice is discontinued: the gift, however, still retains its old name. When this ceremony is over, the clergyman, or, in his absence, the parish clerk, says the Lord's prayer, after which they proceed with the corpse. Four of the nearest of kin take the bier upon their shoulders; a custom considered as the highest respect that filial piety can pay to the deceased. If the distance from the house to the church is considerable, they are relieved by some of the congregation, but they again take it, in order to carry it in and out of the church. I have been told that it is usual in some parts, to set down the bier at every cross-way between the house and the church, and again repeat the Lord's prayer, and to do the same when they enter the church-yard. They generally sing psalms on the way, by which the stillness of rustic life is often broke into in a manner finely productive of religious reflections.

In some places it was customary for the friends of the dead to kneel and say the Lord's prayer over the grave for several Sundays after the interment, and then to dress the grave with flowers.

Among the Welch it was reckoned fortunate for the deceased if it should rain while they were carrying him to church; that his bier might be wet with the dew of heaven.

I have observed, that in many parts of Wales, as well as England, the relations most ridiculously crowd all into that part of the church-yard which

is south of the church; the north, or as they term it the *wrong side*, being accounted unhallowed ground, and fit only to be the dormitory of still-born infants and suicides.

Population, &c.—Wales, in ancient times, is said to have been a much more populous country than at present, which is in a great measure to be attributed to the emigrations which for the last three or four centuries the inhabitants have been excited to, from the supposed sterility of their own soil, and the almost certain prospect of getting better forward in life, in England or other countries. That this is the fact must be obvious from the constant recurrence of the peculiar surnames of Welch families, which at present are as common in England as those of the natives of the country. In the beginning of the 18th century the population was estimated at 300,000, which in 1750 was supposed to have increased to 400,000, owing in a great measure to that attachment which is naturally felt towards our native country, that had induced several of those persons who had realized a capital in other climes to return, and who, being joined by the nobility and gentry, had begun to turn their attention to the agricultural improvement and natural produce of the principality; which has ultimately proved not only beneficial to the proprietors, but extremely advantageous to the country, as having been the means of procuring subsistence to thousands of its increasing population. In 1801, according to the return under the population act, Wales contained 108,053 houses, and 541,546 persons, viz. 257,178 males, and 284,368 females, of whom 53,892 were returned as being employed in trade and manufacture; and, as a proof that the population of this part of the empire is on the increase, we find, from a return made to the House of Lords in 1806, that it had increased to 544,375. The amount of the money raised for the maintenance of the poor in 1803 was £186,890, which was at the rate of 7s. 3½d. in the pound. The amount of the assessment under the act granting a tax on property, in 1806, was £3,029,300; and the average scale of mortality, according to the registered burials for ten years ending 1804, appears to have been as 1 to 60 of the existing population.

Religion.—After the massacre of the Welch clergy by Augustine, the popish apostle of England, because they would not conform to the Romish ritual, Wales fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romish clergy insinuated themselves into their favour, by their pretended power of absolving them from crimes; and the Welch, when their ancient

clergy were extinct, conformed themselves to the religion of Rome.

The established religion at present in Wales is that of the church of England; but the common people, in many places, are so tenacious of their ancient customs, that they retain several of the Romish superstitions; and some ancient families among them are still Roman Catholics.

In former times Wales contained more bishoprics than it does at present; and about the epoch of the Norman invasion the religious foundations here far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality. At present the episcopal government of Wales is under the direction of the following bishops: viz.

- 185 *Llandaff*, containing the counties of Glamorgan, Monmouth, Brecknock, and Radnor.
- 516 *Bangor*—Anglesea, Carnarvon, Merioneth, and part of Denbigh, Flint, and Montgomery.
- 519 *St. David's**—Pembroke, Cardigan, and Carmarthen.
- 547 *St. Asaph*—the greater part of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomeryshire.

	Value in King's Books.			Net Value.
	£	s.	d.	£
Llandaff	154	14	2	1600
St. Asaph	137	11	8	1500
St. David's	426	2	1	1400
Bangor	151	16	3	1200

The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and English. The principality contains great numbers of Protestant Dissenters and Wesleyan Methodists.

There is an extraordinary kind of enthusiasts, who, from certain extravagancies which they exhibit, are denominated *Jumpers*. These fanatics persuade themselves that they are involuntarily acted upon by some divine impulse; and becoming intoxicated with this imagined inspiration, they utter their rapture and their triumph with such wildness and incoherence, with such gesticulation and vociferation, as set all reason and decorum at defiance. This presumption seizes chiefly the young and sanguine, and, as it seems, like hysteric affections, partly spreading though the crowd by sympathy, its operations and effects varying according to the different degrees of constitutional temperament, mock all description. Among their preachers, who are also very various in character (illiterate and conceited—or well-meaning and sensible—or, too frequently, I fear, crafty and hypo-

* St. David's was the archbishopric of Wales, from 550 to 1100, when the archbishop submitted to the archbishop of Canterbury, as his metropolitan.

critical), some are more distinguished by their success in exciting these *extravaganzas*. One of these, after beginning in a lower voice, in more broken and detached sentences, rises by degrees to a greater vehemence of tone and gesture, which often swells into a bellowing, as grating to the ear, as the attendant distortions are disgusting to the sight of a rational man. In the early part he is accompanied only by sighs and occasional moans, with here and there a note of approbation, which, after a while, are succeeded by whinings and exclamations; till, at length, one among the crowd, wrought up to a pitch of ecstasy, which it is supposed will permit no longer to be suppressed, starts and commences the jumping; using, at intervals, some expressions of praise, or of triumph. The word most generally adopted is "*gogoniant*," (glory!) Between these exclamations, while labouring with the subject, is emitted from the throat a harsh undulating sound, which, by the profane, has been compared to a stone-cutter's saw. The conclusion, which I am almost ashamed to describe, has more the appearance of heathen orgies, than of the rational fervour of Christian devotion. The phrenzy spreads among the multitude; for, in fact, a kind of religious phrenzy appears to seize them. To any observations made to them they seem insensible. Men and women indiscriminately cry and laugh, jump and sing, with the wildest extravagance. That their dress becomes deranged, or the hair dishevelled, is no longer an object of attention; and their raptures continue, till, spent with fatigue of mind and body, the women are frequently carried out in a state of apparent insensibility. In these scenes, indeed, the youthful part of the congregation are principally concerned; the more elderly generally contenting themselves with admiring, with devout gratitude, what they deem the operations of the Spirit.

They have their *general* meetings, which are held once or twice, in a year, at Carnarvon, Pwllheli, and other places in rotation. At these they sometimes assemble so many as five or six thousand people. They hold their general meeting at Carnarvon, in the open air upon the green, near the castle; and not contented with their enthusiastic extravagancies upon the spot, many of the people, from the country, have been known to continue them for three or four miles of their road home.

Learning.—Wales was a seat of learning at a very early period; but it suffered an eclipse by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales, when it was persecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch dispute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly about four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrensis, whose history was published by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Le-

land mentions several learned men of the same country, who flourished before the Reformation. The discovery of the famous king Arthur and his wife's burying-place was owing to some lines of Thaliessin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced several excellent antiquarians and divines.

At present some of the Welch make a considerable figure in the republic of letters, and many of their clergy are excellent scholars.

The Welch Paternoster is as follows:

Eiſn Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, sancteiddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefod: dyro in i heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a maddeu i ni ein dyledion fel y maddeuwn ni'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth, eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn eos eosoedd. Amen.

Antiquities.—Wales abounds with remains of antiquity. Several of its castles are stupendously large, and in some the remains of Roman architecture are plainly discernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and some appear to be partly British and partly Roman. In Brecknockshire are some rude sculptures, upon a stone six feet high, called the Maiden-stone; but the remains of the Druidical institutions and places of worship, are chiefly discernible in the Isle of Anglesea, the ancient *Mona*, mentioned by Tacitus, who describes it as being the chief seminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Cherphilly castle, in Glamorgan-shire, is said to have been the largest in Great Britain, except Windsor; and the remains of it shew it to have been a most beautiful fabric.

Commerce and Manufactures.—The Welch are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the western and northern counties of England. Their trade is mostly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milford-haven, which is reckoned the finest in Europe, lies in Pembroke-shire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late considerable sums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. The county of Pembroke employs nearly 1000 merchant ships, and its inhabitants carry on an extensive trade. In Brecknockshire are several woollen manufactories; and Wales in general carries on a great coal-trade with England and Ireland.

Constitution, Laws, &c.—Wales was united and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by an act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form; all laws, customs, and tenures contrary to those of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the Eng-

lish

lish liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament; viz. a knight for every shire, and a burgess for every shire town, except Merioneth.

The crown has a certain, though small, property in the product of the silver and lead mines; but it is said that the revenue accruing to the Prince of Wales, from his principality, does not exceed 7 or £8000 a year.

Historical Summary.—The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people were never entirely subdued by the Romans, though part of their country, as it appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. The Saxons, as has been already observed, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, but they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; and the names of these divisions were *Dime-tia*, or South Wales; *Povesia*, or Powis Land; and *Venedotia*, or North Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England. The Welch made many brave attempts to maintain their liberties against the Norman kings of England. In 1237, the

crown of England was first supplied with a pretext for the future conquest of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellyn, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his undutiful son Gryffyn, having put himself under the protection of Henry III. to whom he did homage. But the ambition of Edward I. made him resolve to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellyn, prince of Wales, disdaining the subjection to which old Llewellyn had submitted, Edward raised an army, at a prodigious expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and, taking possession of the Isle of Anglesea, drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowden, where he obliged them to submit to pay tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewellyn; but, at last, in 1282, he was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling through treachery into Edward's hands, was by him most barbarously and unjustly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. About this time, probably, Edward perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welch bards; but perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen, in the year 1284, to be delivered in Carnarvon castle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognise his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of Prince of Wales has always descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England has ever since been identified.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO ENGLAND.

ISLE OF MAN.

THIS island is supposed to take its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), because of its lying in St. George's Channel, about 30 miles from the coast of England, 18 from Scotland, 24 from Ireland, and 40 from the extreme point of the isle of Anglesea. Its length from north to south is rather more than 30 miles, its breadth from 8 to 15; and the latitude of the middle of the island is 54 degrees 16 minutes north. The island is divided into nearly two equal parts by a ridge of mountains; from the top of which, 580 yards above the level of the sea, it is said that on a clear day three Britanic kingdoms may be seen. The air here is wholesome, and the climate something milder than the neighbouring parts of Great Britain and Ireland; frost and snow being of short continuance: but the summers want the necessary heat

for vegetation, which causes late harvests; the grain in consequence is small, the straw bad, and husbandry much checked by easterly winds. The fishery is by far the most important occupation, employing about 5000 of the male population; the women being mostly engaged in husbandry. The horses are small and hardy, and the mountain sheep seldom average more than 8lbs. per quarter, but the flesh is excellent. A peculiar breed called *Laughton*, of which the fleece is in the greatest repute among the inhabitants for cloth and stockings, is of the colour of Spanish snuff. Poultry of all kinds are numerous and cheap; but fish, and especially herrings, are the chief support of the inhabitants, who are not troubled with any noxious animals. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit holes, are almost lumps of fat, and esteemed very delicious. Here are mines of iron, lead, and copper, with quarries

of marble, slate, and stone. The better sorts of fruits are not to be reared here, but the common kinds met with in England thrive tolerably well. The island is divided into seventeen parishes, called *kirks*. The chief towns are,

1. *Castletown*, anciently called *Sodor*; which, though not the largest town, is generally reckoned the capital of the island. It is seated on a fine bay at the south-eastern extremity, and contains several regular streets of well built houses. Here St. Patrick fixed the residence of a bishop, but it was removed to *Peele* before the Reformation. The castle is a most stately structure, standing on a rock encompassed by walls so thick that three persons may walk on them abreast; it has a lofty tower; and the whole is surrounded with a moat, having a draw-bridge. All the civil courts are held in this castle, and the apartments are fitted up in the neatest manner. The town contains about 500 houses, with 2500 inhabitants.

2. *Douglas*, the most commercial and populous town on the island, stands on two small streams on the eastern shore towards England. The streets are irregular, but the houses neat; it has a handsome chapel and free-school, and is the residence of the principal merchants of the isle. Here is a very spacious and safe harbour, in the form of a crescent; the high lands that surround making it a welcome asylum from the frequent tempests that agitate the neighbouring sea. Within a few years this town has increased considerably, and is supposed at present to contain about 1000 houses, with 5000 inhabitants. The residence of the duke of Athol is a handsome edifice. The market of *Douglas* is well attended from all parts, and provisions of all kinds are plentiful and cheap.

3. *Peele*, a small sea-port, situated on the western side of the island towards Ireland. It is a straggling place, and much gone to decay, having formerly been of greater consequence than at present; it was formerly the residence of the lord of the island, and the bishop, as may be seen by the ruins of the old mansion, the old castle, and the cathedral, all of which are in a ruinous condition. *Peele Bay* is large and convenient, and, besides various other kinds of fish, produces the red cod, which has a delicious flavour. Here are about 300 houses, with 1500 inhabitants.

4. *Ramsay*, situated at the north-eastern extremity of the island, sixteen miles north from *Douglas*, is a small improving town. The bay, which is spacious, affords good anchorage; but the harbour is small, and only fit for small vessels. The town contains about 300 houses, with 1500 inhabitants.

The language, which is called the *Manks*, and spoken by the common people, is radically *Erse*; but with a mixture of other languages. The New Testament and the Common Prayer book have

been translated into the *Manks* language. The inhabitants, who amount to about 30,000, are inoffensive, charitable, and hospitable.

In the remote parts of the island, the cottages are miserable huts; and the food of the poor, chiefly thin barley cakes, herrings, potatoes, and milk and water, instead of beer. The men frequently wear a kind of sandal, instead of shoes, made of untanned leather. But the inhabitants of the towns, and the people of property, dress like the English, and have good substantial stone houses, covered with slate. The fuel used by them chiefly consists of furze and heath, with a kind of peat, extracted from some bogs in the interior of the country. The produce of the country is brought to market on small horses, with panniers, one side of which is generally filled with small pebbles, and the other with the articles for sale. Near *Ballasalla*, a few miles from *Castletown*, are some extensive cotton works, the only establishment of the kind in the island. The lead-mine of *Fixdale*, at a small distance, is very productive to the proprietors. The exports of this island to Great Britain are potatoes, butter, eggs, pork, beef, skins, honey, kelp, wool, yarn, and lead-ore, which they exchange for commodities they may have occasion for.

The established religion of *Sodor* and *Man* is that of the church of England, and the bishop enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of the other bishops, but does not sit in the British house of peers, his see never having been erected into an English barony.

One of the most excellent prelates that ever adorned the episcopal character, and to whom this island was greatly indebted for its civilization and improvement, was Dr. Thomas Wilson, who was bishop of this diocese upwards of 57 years, and died in 1755, at the advanced age of 92; of whom an elegant writer has drawn the following portraiture:—

“ This eminent prelate was venerable in his aspect, meek in his deportment, his face illuminated with benignity, and his heart glowing with piety. Like his divine master, he went about doing good; with the pride and avarice of prelacy he was totally unacquainted; his palace was the temple of charity; hospitality stood at his gate, and invited the stranger to the kind repast. The day he devoted to benevolence, and the night to piety: his revenue was devoted to the poor and needy; and, not content with relieving the wants and mitigating the woes of mankind, he was solicitous by precept and example to conduct his little flock to the kingdom of heaven. He died justly revered and lamented by the whole island, while his grave was watered by the tears of those whom his bounty had supported, his benignity had gladdened, or his eloquent piety

piety had turned into the paths of righteousness. Admire the virtues of this excellent man; and go thou, and do likewise."

Besides the episcopal establishment, which is well maintained, and the livings comfortable, here are numbers of Protestant Dissenters, and Wesleyan Methodists, who have several commodious chapels in various parts of the island.

This part of the British Empire submitted, like other parts of the country, to the yoke of the Romans, Saxons, and Normans; and, after various revolutions, fell into the hands of the Scots. The Norwegians took it from them, as well as most of the Western Isles of Scotland, over which they placed a sovereign, whom they called the King of the Isles; but in 1266 the king of Norway ceded these islands to Alexander III. king of Scotland. It appears to have continued tributary to that power till reduced by Edward I.; and the kings of England from that time exercised authority over the island, though we find it still possessed by the posterity of its Danish princes in the reign of Edward III. who dispossessed the last queen, and bestowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Salisbury. His family honours and estate being forfeited, Henry IV. bestowed it first upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon Sir John Stanley, whose posterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the sister of the last Lord Derby, from whom it was purchased by the British government, at the expence of £70,000, in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the island, though the form of its government is altered, and the king has now the same rights, powers, and privileges, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants also retain many of their ancient constitutions and customs. The governor resides in the castle of Rushon, near Castletown, and lives in considerable style as the king's representative.

Before the south promontory of Man is a little island, called the CALF OF MAN: it is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad, through which the tide rushes furiously: it is environed by gloomy caverns and stupendous precipices, which in the breeding season are frequented by vast multitudes of sea-fowl, particularly puffens, which often nestle and bring up their young in the holes of the rabbits, which are dislodged by those unwelcome strangers; thousands of these are caught and pickled, which supply the inhabitants with winter food.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

This island was called by the Romans *Vectis*, but *Vihltorn* is the Saxon name. It is situated op-

posite the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to seven miles; it is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length, extending from east to west, measures nearly 23 miles; its breadth, from north to south, about thirteen; being about 60 miles in circumference, and containing an area of 100,000 square acres, of which quantity 75,000 may be reckoned in a course of tillage, and 20,000 in pasturage; the remainder being consumed in roads, woods, rivers, &c. It is divided into two hundreds, and thirty parishes, containing 3593 houses, and 22,097 inhabitants, of whom 2409 were returned as being employed in trade and manufacture, and 4377 in agriculture. The principal river is the Medina, so called from nearly dividing the island into two equal parts.

The air is remarkably healthy, particularly in the southern parts; the soil is various, but so great is its fertility, that it was many years ago computed that more wheat was grown here in one year than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight, and it is still increasing in improvement and population.

So remarkable is this island for the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and picturesque variety of the landscapes, that it has been called the garden of England. The chief towns are,

1. *Newport*, an ancient borough that stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes harbour, distant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, renders it commodious for trade.

The town is regularly built, and has some handsome shops and good inns. It consists lengthwise of three parallel streets, which are crossed by three others, having three large squares, containing the cattle, corn, and poultry markets, formed by intersections; the principal market-house is an ancient building, above which is a modern built town hall. The church stands in the centre of one of the squares, consisting of a nave, with two side aisles, and a square tower; the pulpit is of wainscot, richly ornamented with carved emblematical figures. Dissenters of various denominations have their different meeting-houses here, and there are several charity and Sunday schools. The only manufacture carried on is that of starch. About one mile distant is Carisbrook Castle, rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. and afterwards his children; his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it. In 1801 Newport contained 504 houses, with 3585 inhabitants.

2. *Cowes West*, a sea-port town, pleasantly situated on the side of a hill, at the mouth of the Medina,

dina, or Newport river, which here forms a safe and convenient harbour. Many of the principal warehouses have of late been converted into barracks, it being the principal depôt for the recruits to regiments on foreign service, as well as for foreign troops in British pay. During the summer season this place has been much frequented for the purpose of sea-bathing; and there have lately been a number of genteel buildings erected as lodging houses, together with an assembly room. The town is divided into two parts by the river, and contains 465 houses, and 2771 inhabitants.

The other boroughs of *Newton* and *Yarmouth*, are small insignificant places, containing nothing deserving particular notice.

The manners, customs, and produce of this island are similar to those of the neighbouring counties already described.

SCILLY ISLANDS,

Anciently the *SILURES*, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about thirty miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part. By their situation between the English and St. George's Channels, they have been the destruction of many ships and lives.

ST. MARY'S, the largest of these islands, is about nine or ten miles in circumference, and contains about 150 houses, and 700 inhabitants. The soil is fertile; and the fields, like those in Cornwall, are inclosed with stone fences. This island has a small garrison.

About two miles south-west from this island lies that of *ST. AGNES*, on which is a very high and strong light-house, seen in the night to a great distance, by which ships going out of, or coming into, the two channels, avoid falling in with the rocks, lying thicker about this than any other of the islands.

About three miles north of *St. Agnes* lies the island of *TRESCO*, the town upon which is called the *Dolphin*, consisting of a church, and about twenty houses built of stone. There are only two other small islands that are inhabited, upon which are several remains of Druidical antiquities. The chief employ of the inhabitants of these several isles is that of fishing, burning kelp, and acting as pilots. Some of the islands produce excellent corn, and most of them plenty of rabbits, herons, swans, and various water-fowl.

THE NORMAN ISLES,

In the English Channel, are four islands subject to England: these are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to

the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's Bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently *CÆSAREA*, was known to the Romans, and lies farthest within the bay, in 49 degrees 7 minutes north latitude, and 2 degrees 26 minutes west longitude, 18 miles west of Normandy, and 84 south of Portland; being about 12 miles long, and 6 broad, and consisting of 12 parishes, all the churches to which are handsome Gothic structures. The lofty cliffs on the north side are inaccessible; the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards of apple trees, so thick that they resemble a forest, which produce excellent cyder: it has been computed that upwards of 25,000 hogsheads have been made here in one year; insomuch as to make a deficiency of arable land for corn, which is imported from the Baltic, England, and in time of peace from France. This island produces plenty of cattle, especially sheep. The wool is manufactured into stockings and caps, of which some thousands are annually sold for exportation. The inclosures are made by thick mounds of earth, planted with quicksets. The air is so salubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was said there was here not any business for a physician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, of which about 3000 are capable of bearing arms, and are formed into two regiments for the defence of the island. Besides these, there is a strong garrison of regulars; and every avenue is well fortified.

The town of *St. Helier*, or *Hilary*, which contains about 500 houses, and 2500 inhabitants, has a good harbour and castle, and makes a handsome appearance. The streets are spacious; with neat buildings. The courts of justice for the island are held in this town, in the centre of which is the court-house, a very stately structure; and near it, the parish-church, where the service is performed in French and English. The market is spacious, and the shambles are inclosed by a stone wall. The harbour is good, and defended by a strong castle, the residence of the governor of the island. At a little distance from hence is the small town of *St. Aubin*, which has a considerable trade, but contains nothing remarkable.

The language of Jersey is French, with which most of them intermingle English words. They carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown

crown of England; but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which is, as it were, a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles from south-west to north-east, and $12\frac{1}{2}$ where broadest, east and west; being of a triangular shape, and about 30 miles in circumference. It contains ten parishes, to which there are but eight ministers; four of the parishes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernsey, forming each a separate parish, with its appropriate minister. Though this is naturally a finer island than that of Jersey, yet it is far less valuable, because it is not so well cultivated; the inhabitants neglecting agriculture, for the sake of trade and commerce, particularly in French wines, which is here carried on to a great extent. The island is full of gardens and orchards; and the principal beverage of the inhabitants is cyder. In time of war they fit out a number of privateers, which bring considerable riches to the place. They also carry on a considerable trade to Newfoundland and the Mediterranean. The staple manufacture is knit stockings. The only town is *St. Peter le Port*, which is guarded by two forts; one called the Old Castle, and the other Castle Cornet. The town consists chiefly of one long street, containing several good buildings. The pier is a noble work, formed of ~~cut~~ stones joined together with great art and regularity; and, being handsomely paved on the top with smooth flag-stones, guarded by parapets, it forms a pleasant promenade. The language, manners, and customs, are similar to those of Jersey. Although subject to Great Britain, this island, like those adjacent, is governed by peculiar laws, which are administered by a governor, a bailiff, and twelve jurats, appointed by the crown. It contains about 15,000 inhabitants.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; at other times it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. The island is about eight miles in circumference, and contains but one town, nearly in the centre of the island, which has about 200 houses, and 1000 inhabitants, with a handsome church; but the houses are inferior to those of Guernsey. The air is ex-

tremely healthy; and the whole island is in a high state of cultivation. This place is remarkable for its fine breed of cows. It contains about 5000 inhabitants. To the west lie a range of rocks, extending near three leagues, called the Caskets, among which are several very dangerous whirlpools and eddies.

SARK, a small island, about two miles in length, is surrounded by steep rocks. It produces a quantity of grain, sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants, who are about 300 in number. It abounds with rabbits and wild-fowl. The trade of this island is chiefly to Bristol.

The whole population of these islands, in 1801, was estimated at 40,000.

HOLY ISLAND,

Or, as it was anciently called, *LANDISFERN*, belongs to the detached part of the county of Durham, which lies on the north-east side of Northumberland: it is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and nearly two broad; and at high-water is entirely surrounded by the sea, but at ebb it is nearly dry for horses and carriages. The inhabitants are chiefly fishermen, who reside in a village at the south-east corner of the island, which contained 136 houses, and 601 inhabitants. The name of this island is derived from an ancient monastery, founded here by Oswald king of Northumberland.

LUNDY ISLAND,

In the mouth of the Bristol Channel, is about five miles long, and two broad, being encompassed by inaccessible rocks, and having but one entrance, where it will hardly admit two persons abreast. It has horses, sheep, goats, and pigs; but at present only one family is living upon it; the chief business being the supply of provisions, particularly eggs and fowls, to the inhabitants of Devonshire. In the reign of Henry VIII. one Morisco, a pirate, with eighteen of his associates, strongly fortified themselves here, and considerably annoyed the coast by their piratical depredations.

WALNEY ISLAND,

Situated off the northern coast of the county of Lancashire, about nine miles long, and one broad, abounds with sea-gulls and other wild fowl. It contains three small villages, and about 100 inhabitants.

SCOTLAND.

SECTION I.

Name—Original Population—Boundaries, Situation and Extent—Divisions, Chief Towns, &c.

THAT part of the United Kingdom called Scotland was first discovered to the Romans by Agricola; and Tacitus disclosed the situation and manners of the country. It is supposed by some, that the *Thule* of the Phœnicians may have been the main land of Shetland; or, perhaps, even the north of Scotland, which the Phœnicians, standing out to sea, and afterwards bending their course towards the land, may have mistaken for another island, a circumstance not unusual in the annals of navigation. However this be, not even a hint that can be positively applied to Scotland, can be found in the ancient writers, till the Flavian family held the Roman sceptre.

Tacitus discriminates the northern part of Britain from the southern, by the special and repeated name of *Caledonia*; a name signifying woodlands, forests, or, perhaps rather, a mountainous country, for the ancients often blended the ideas of forest and mountain.

The names *Caledonia* and *Caledonians* continued to be used till the Roman power expired. Bede, the father of English history, calls the inhabitants of the country by the name of *Picti*, which had also been used by the later Roman writers as synonymous with that of *Caledonii*. The country he denominates, in the barbaric Latin of that age, *Provincia Pictorum*, the province or region of the Picti. This new name seems to have been native (*Piks*, or *Pehts*), and to have originated from a country so styled, in the south of Norway, whence this colony had arrived. King Alfred and the Saxon writers call the people *Peohts*, and the country *Peohtland*.

These distinctions continued till the 11th century, when the new name of *Scotia* was taken from Ireland, and applied to modern Scotland. How this was effected is not satisfactorily accounted for; nor can the name be properly derived from any pretended conquest of the Picti, by the Attacotti, a colony of Scots or Irish, who had settled in Argyleshire, as the Saxon and Irish authors continued to use the former appellations for three centuries after that event is said to have happened. By the Italians the country is called *Scotia*; by the Spaniards, *Escotia*; and by the French, *Ecosse*.

Original Population.—With respect to the ori-

ginal population of Scotland, all that we can learn is, that it consisted of Cimbri, from the Cimbric Chersonese. About two centuries before the Christian æra, the Cimbri seem to have been driven to the south of Scotland by the Caledonians, or Picti, a Gothic colony from Norway. The Cimbri, a similar people with the Welch, continued to hold the country south of the two friths of Forth and Clyde; but from the former region they were soon expelled by the Picti, who, in this corner, became subject for a time to the Anglo-Saxon kings of Bernicia. On the west, the Cumraig kingdom of Strath Clyde continued till the 10th century, when it became subject to the kings of North Britain; who at the same time extended their authority, by the permission of the English monarchs, over the counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland, which, abounding with hills and fortresses on the south and east, were scarcely accessible to the English power, and, while the Danes possessed the country to the north of the Humber, could yield little revenue or support to the Anglo-Saxon monarchs. The population of the Lowlands of Scotland originates from the Picti, the Lowlanders having been in all ages a distinct people from those of the western Highlands. About the year of Christ 258, the Dalriads of Bede, or the Attacotti of the Roman writers, passed from Ireland to Argyleshire, and became the germ of the Scottish Highlanders, who speak the Irish or Celtic language, while the Lowlanders have always used the Scandinavian, or Gothic.

Boundaries, Situation, and Extent.—Scotland is bounded on the north by that part of the Atlantic called the Northern Ocean; on the east by the German Ocean, or North Sea; on the west by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the south by England. Including the islands of Shetland and the Hebrides, it extends from 55 to 63 degrees of north latitude, and from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $8\frac{1}{4}$ degrees west longitude; being about 300 miles in length, and about 150 in breadth, and containing about 27,794 square acres.

Divisions.—This country has been for a length of time distinguished by the two appellations of Highlands and Lowlands; but the boundaries of these are arbitrary and undetermined. A more natural division appears to be that into Northern, Middle, and Southern parts. In the following table we have brought together some of the most important circumstances respecting the topography and statistics of the counties, which are 33 in number.

	COUNTIES.	Length.	Breadth.	Parishes.	Square Acres.	Population.			County Towns.
						1755.	1790 - 1798.	1801.	
Northern Division.	O. kney and Shetland .	—	—	40	unknown	38,591	43,239	46,824	Kirkwall.
	Caithness	35	20	10	492,800	22,215	24,802	22,609	Wick.
	Sutherland	80	40	13	2,148,000	19,004	22,807	23,117	Dornoch.
	Ross	80	80	30	561,200	42,493	50,146	53,525	Tain.
	Cromarty	16	7	5	61,440	5,163	5,284	3,052	Cromarty.
	Inverness	92	50	31	2,944,000	65,656	73,979	74,292	Inverness.
	Argyle	114	70	49	2,432,000	63,291	76,101	75,700	Inverary.
Midland Division.	Bute	—	—	5	238,080	6,866	10,563	11,791	Rothsay.
	Nairn	18	10	4	153,600	5,694	6,054	8,257	Nairn.
	Murray	42	20	18	537,600	28,934	26,080	26,705	Elgin.
	Bamff	32	13	23	649,600	36,521	38,487	35,807	Bamff.
	Aberdeen	90	46	85	718,816	116,836	122,921	123,071	Aberdeen.
	Mearns, or Kincardine .	30	20	20	243,444	24,346	26,799	26,349	Bervie.
	Angus, or Forfar . . .	40	25	27	593,920	77,540	88,127	99,127	Forfar.
	Perth	77	68	76	4,068,640	118,903	133,274	126,366	Perth.
	Fife	60	18	63	322,560	81,570	87,250	93,743	Cupar.
	Kinross	6	5	7	43,920	4,889	5,302	6,725	Kinross.
Southern Division.	Clackmannan	9	8	4	25,600	9,003	8,749	10,858	Culross.
	Stirling	36	12	22	450,560	40,007	49,000	50,825	Stirling.
	Dunbarton	30	23	12	159,356	13,857	18,408	20,710	Dunbarton
	Linlithgow	20	10	13	57,008	16,829	17,570	17,844	Linlithgow.
	Edinburgh	30	20	21	230,400	90,412	122,655	122,954	Edinburgh
	Haddington	25	14	24	224,000	29,709	28,966	29,986	Haddington
	Berwick	34	19	30	326,400	24,946	30,875	30,206	Dunse.
	Renfrew	28	20	17	322,560	64,987	75,000	78,056	Renfrew.
	Ayr	65	36	45	1,152,000	59,268	75,544	84,306	Ayr.
	Wigton	30	12	17	238,721	19,123	21,000	22,918	Wigton.
	Lanark	47	32	41	556,800	81,726	125,254	147,796	Lanark.
	Peebles	36	10	16	153,600	8,998	8,107	8,717	Peebles.
	Selkirk	20	10	2	128,000	4,870	5,020	5,070	Selkirk.
	Roxburgh	40	20	31	472,320	31,273	32,020	33,712	Jedburgh.
	Dumfries	60	30	42	1,088,000	41,913	52,329	54,597	Dumfries.
	Kirkcudbright	45	30	28	440,081	21,205	26,959	29,211	Kirkcudbright.

To illustrate the preceding list of counties, we shall farther proceed to the following particulars:

CAITHNESS-SHIRE,

The most northern county of Scotland, is very rocky, and includes many bays and promontories; it abounds in cattle, sheep, goats, roe-bucks, red deer, and produces copper and iron; but the inhabitants principally live by fishing and grazing. The air is temperate; and the longest day in summer about 18 hours. Agriculture has of late years undergone considerable improvement in this county; but here are neither barns nor granaries, the corn being thrashed out and preserved in the chaff, in *ricks*, or stacks, in the shape of a bee-hive, thatched round, in which state it will keep good for two years. Along the coast are several caverns, which harbour an immense number of seals; the hunting of which, for the sake of the skins, is a hazardous employment. The caverns are narrow at their entrance, but lofty and spacious inside, even to the extent of some hundred yards. The

hunters enter in small boats, with torches, which they light as soon as they land, and with loud shouts alarm the animals, who are killed with clubs as they attempt to pass. This county sends one member to the imperial parliament alternately with that of Bute. The chief towns are,

1. * *Wick*, a royal borough on the eastern side of the county, seated at the estuary of a small river of the same name, has of late years considerably increased in extent and population, owing to the encouragement that has been given to the fisheries, which are the chief support of the place. It is situated on the side of a hill, having several good houses and wide streets. It is governed by a provost (mayor), dean of guild, and other officers, being the county-town and seat of the sheriff's court. In 1801 it contained 884 houses, and 3986 inhabitants; but, owing to the improvements in 1808, it is now more populous.

2. *Thurso*, a considerable town, is situated on the northern coast, at the mouth of a river of the same name, 20 miles from Wick. The buildings are old, and

the streets irregular; but great improvements are making. It carries on a brisk trade with the Orkney islands, and contains 600 houses, and 3000 inhabitants.

SUTHERLANDSHIRE,

South-west of Caithness, is mountainous, rocky, and barren, but well supplied with fish and wild fowl; by reason that it is not only watered by several rivers, but contains above 60 lakes, including various small islands. The principal crops are barley, oats, and potatoes, alternately; and as ploughs are here useless, the chief instrument of culture is the *cascaim*, or crooked spade. This county gives the title of Earl to the Sutherland family, and sends one member to parliament; but there are no freeholders, all the voters and proprietors holding of the family of Sutherland. The only town is,

Dornoch, a royal borough, which stands on the north coast of the frith of Dornoch. It was formerly the seat of the bishop of Caithness; and part of its ancient cathedral is still kept up as the parish church. The town was formerly of greater consequence than at present; the houses being mean, and the whole apparently going to decay. In 1801 it had 559 houses, and 2362 inhabitants.

ROSS-SHIRE,

Situated to the south-west of Sutherland, has snow on its mountains the greatest part of the year. The vallies, however, are fertile; the air good; and the hills produce forests of fir, abundance of game, &c. The chief towns are,

1. *Tain*, a royal borough, and the county-town of this shire, is seated on the frith of Dornoch. The church is an old but elegant fabric, having been formerly collegiate. This town has increased considerably of late years from the erection of a new suburb of good houses. It contained 507 houses, with 2277 inhabitants, in 1801.

2. *Dingwall*, a royal borough, situated in a plain at the west end of the frith of Cromarty, which is navigable for small vessels up to the town. The houses are mostly well built, and the streets paved; but it appears formerly to have been more extensive than at present. It consists of 278 houses, and 1418 inhabitants.

CROMARTYSHIRE,

A small county on the eastern side of Ross-shire, has a light and early soil near the coast; but the high grounds are mostly covered with heath. It has several valuable fisheries. The only town is,

Cromarty, which stands on a point of land projecting into the sea, which runs into the frith of the same name, and that here forms one of the finest bays in Great Britain, capable of holding

the whole British navy. The town is irregularly built, and has a small manufacture of sail-cloth. Here were 410 houses, and 2208 inhabitants.

INVERNESS-SHIRE,

To the south-east of Ross-shire, comprehends the districts of Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenelg. The surface of the county is mountainous, interspersed with fertile vales, and numerous lakes abounding with fish. The principal employment of the farmer is the management of black cattle and sheep; and there are numerous herds of goats, together with abundance of red deer and roes. The only town of note is,

* *Inverness*, from which the shire derives its name, is a royal borough on the river Ness, over which there is a handsome bridge of seven arches. It is the seat of a presbytery, and may be justly deemed the key and capital of the Highlands. It is well built; and near its centre, in the High Street, is the court-house, connected with the Tolbooth, a handsome modern building, with a tower and elegant spire. The academy, built in 1790, is a neat and commodious building. This town, at the beginning of the 18th century, chiefly consisted of granaries, kilns, barns, &c.; and at the period of the rebellion, in 1745, was a mean insignificant place; but within the last fifty years it has been greatly improved, and almost wholly rebuilt. The chief manufactures are hemp and flax, and some of cotton and woollen; there are also several tanneries, potteries, &c. The harbour is safe and commodious; and the ships belonging to this port are generally employed in carrying salmon and the manufacture and produce of the country to London, and in bringing back various articles of grocery, drugs &c. with which they supply their more northern neighbours. The salmon fishery here is very productive, and is farmed by some of the leading fishmongers in the metropolis. Here are three national or Presbyterian churches, besides one of Episcopalians, a chapel for Wesleyan Methodists, &c. This town is governed by a provost, four bailies, and a dean of guild, assisted by fifteen other councillors. The population of this town in 1755 was 4500; in 1795, 5107; and in 1801 it contained 1392 houses, and 8732 inhabitants.

ARGYLESHIRE,

To the south-west of Inverness, is a wild barren county. It is divided into several districts, viz. Kintyre, Knapdale, Lorne, Argyle Proper, and Cowal. This county is supposed to have formed the principal part of the Caledonian kingdom, when the eastern part of Scotland submitted to the Romans. The chief places are,

1. *Inverary*, a royal borough, and the county-town of this shire, pleasantly situated in a small bay

bay at the head of Loch Lyne; it consists principally of one row of houses, facing the lake, well built, and covered with slate. At the beginning of the 14th century it was a mere fishing village, when the proprietors, the family of Argyle, fixing their residence here, and having the hereditary sheriffship, it became the seat of the courts and the county-town. The chief support of the place is its herring fishery; about 20,000 barrels being annually caught in the Loch. It contains 275 houses, and 2045 inhabitants.

2. *Cambletown*, a royal borough in the district of Kintyre, was formerly only a small fishing village, but is now the most flourishing and populous town in the county. It has a fine harbour, in the form of a crescent, much frequented during the herring fishery; and there are coal mines about three miles distant from the town, from which coals are brought by a canal. In 1801 this town contained 1000 houses, and 7093 inhabitants.

BUTESHIRE,

To the south of Argyle, consists of the two islands of Bute and Arran. The former is 18 miles long, and 4 to 5 in breadth, and is tolerably fertile, especially towards the south, which is well cultivated and enclosed; but the chief employment is the fishery. The climate, though damp, is mild and temperate. The chief town is,

Rothsay, a royal borough, which, 50 years ago, was much upon the decline; but many new streets have of late years been built, and it is now in a thriving state. The cotton manufacture in its various branches has been lately introduced with success. Here is a most venerable castle, which was a favourite residence of several of the Scottish kings: it now belongs to the Bute family, who, in the neighbourhood, have an elegant mansion. In 1801 here were 592 houses, with 5231 inhabitants.

The *Isle of Arran* is about 23 miles long, and 12 broad. Ridges of mountains extend across the island, but near the shore it is more fertile. It abounds with cattle of all kinds, and the streams are well stored with fish, especially salmon. The climate is severe in winter, but in summer it is remarkably warm and salubrious, so that invalids resort hither for the benefit of the air. The inhabitants are much afflicted with the pleurisy, for a preventative of which the duke of Hamilton, who is proprietor of the island, keeps a surgeon in pay, who visits this place at the spring and fall, when numbers of the inhabitants assemble in the open air, and are bled in a hole made in the ground. Here are no towns that deserve particular notice, they being mere villages. The population of this island was not returned to government in 1801, but is supposed to amount to between 7 and

8000, which will make a considerable addition to the population of the county, which only is returned as that of the island of Bute.

NAIRNSHIRE,

Situated to the south-east of Ross-shire, has a salubrious and temperate air, and contains some tolerable pasture land. The only town is,

Nairn, a royal borough, situated on the coast of the Moray frith, where the river Nairn flows into that arm of the sea. The town is neatly built, and has a small and convenient harbour, capable of being highly improved. The government of this town is vested in seventeen persons. It contains 543 houses, and 2215 inhabitants.

ELGIN, OR MURRAYSHIRE,

To the east of Nairn, has a tolerable air; and the low country is fertile; but towards the south the country is rocky and mountainous, being occupied by extensive forests. Except free stone and lime stone, no mineral substance has been discovered here. The chief towns are,

1. *Elgin*, a royal borough, and the county-town of this shire, is seated on the banks of the small river Lossie, over which there is a good bridge. The town contains an admixture of ancient and modern buildings, and for some years has been on the decline; but, owing to a recent decree of the high court of chancery, in 1810, confirming the will of the late Dr. Gray of Madras, who left £30,000 to his native town (which bequest had been litigated by his relatives), we, no doubt, may speedily expect to hear of the flourishing situation of this borough. It is rendered famous on account of its ancient cathedral, of which a description is given under the head *Antiquities*. In 1801 here were 1001 houses, and 4345 inhabitants.

2. *Forres*, a royal borough, seated on a rising ground near the bay of Findhorn. The houses are neatly built; and the river, which is navigable within two miles of the town, abounds with salmon. The town is governed by a provost, dean of guild, &c.; and in 1801 had 663 houses, and 3114 inhabitants.

BANFFSHIRE,

To the east of Elgin. The face of the country is agreeably diversified with hills, dales, rivers, and woods. The air is pure, the climate healthy, and the soil fertile, producing good crops of corn. The inhabitants are chiefly Lowlanders. Its principal towns are,

1. **Banff*, a royal borough, pleasantly situated on the side of a hill, at the mouth of the river Devron, over which a fine bridge of seven arches has recently been erected. The town consists of several

several streets, the principal one being very handsome, in which an elegant modern town-house has been erected, with a beautiful spire; and also a commodious gaol, on the improved plan. The harbour is dangerous when the north wind blows strong, and has often been nearly choked up with sand; a pier to prevent which is now placed outside. Here is a good salmon fishery, and some coarse linen and sail-cloth is fabricated. In 1801 here were 660 houses, and 3571 inhabitants.

2. *Cullen*, although a royal borough, is but a small town, with ill built houses and dirty irregular streets. It contains 262 houses, and 1076 inhabitants. Though situated on the sea-coast it has no harbour, but it has a damask manufactory, introduced by the earl of Finlater.

3. *Portsoy*, a considerable sea-port, situated on a point of land projecting into the Moray frith, forming a safe harbour for moderate sized vessels. It carries on a considerable trade in the manufacture of thread and fine linens, and has a number of vessels employed in the fisheries. It is irregularly built, but has several good houses. In 1801 here were 617 houses, with 2747 inhabitants.

ABERDEENSHIRE,

To the east of Banffshire, has a wholesome air, is well watered, finely diversified with hills and dales, and pretty fertile in the eastern and southern districts of Garisch and Strathbogie, while that of Mar is rugged and mountainous, and Buchan very sterile and bleak: the sides of the hills are covered with trees; and here are several forests in many places impassable. The soil is extremely various, and the agriculture of the interior rude, but on the coast and champaign part of the county it is daily improving. Here are few minerals, but abundance of stone is exported. The chief places are,

1. **Aberdeen*, an ancient city, situated between the mouths of the rivers Dee and Don; it consists of two towns, which are distinguished by the names of Old and New Aberdeen: the former lies nearly a mile to the north of the latter, at the estuary of the river Don, over which it has a Gothic bridge, of one arch, resting upon a rock on each side. During the establishment of episcopacy in Scotland, this was the seat of a bishop, and had a splendid cathedral called St. Machan's; two ancient spires and one aisle of which, now used as a kirk, are still standing. Here is a good university, which we shall notice in its proper place. The new town of Aberdeen, for extent, trade, and beauty, exceeds any in the north of Scotland. It stands on a rising ground, near a small bay formed by the river Dee, deep enough for a ship of 200 tons, and two miles in compass. Over the river is a fine bridge of 7 arches. The houses are mostly

built of granite, from the neighbouring quarries, are generally four stories high, and have mostly gardens behind them. The town-house is neat, having a handsome spire in the middle; the grammar school is a fine low building; and Gordon hospital is handsome—it maintains forty boys, who are apprenticed out: but one of the greatest ornaments of this city is the college. The harbour, for a length of time, was but in a bad condition, until the pier at the north side was erected: it is 1200 feet long, and 38 high, built of granite, by Mr. Smeaton, at the expence of £17,000. The merchants of Aberdeen have a considerable foreign trade; both to the north and south of Europe. The exports are thread, knit stockings, salmon, and oatmeal; also pickled pork, in time of peace, to the Dutch, for victualling their East India shipping, the pork here having the reputation of being the best cured in Europe for long voyages. The imports are chiefly from the Baltic, the West Indies or America. Here are five churches belonging to the establishment; together with chapels for Episcopalians, Burghers, Anti-Burghers, Methodists, &c. In 1801 this city was returned as containing 1758 houses; and 17,597 inhabitants.

2. **Peterhead*, a considerable sea-port situated on an isthmus in the district of Buchan, 24 miles north from Aberdeen. The town is built in the form of a cross, and consists of four principal streets of well planned houses, neatly built of granite: near the centre is the town-house, an elegant building, having a fine spire. The manufacture of thread, woollen cloth, and cotton, have been introduced here, with great success, and are carried on to a large extent. This place is much frequented in the summer season, both for sea-bathing and drinking the waters of a famous mineral well, to the south of the town, called the Mine well, (from its sparkling in a glass like champaign) which has for a length of time been famous for the cure of bilious and nervous disorders. The harbour here is excellent, and the trade considerable. In 1801 here were 826 houses, with 4491 inhabitants.

3. *Huntley*, an inland town, situated on the borders of Banffshire, at the confluence of two small rivers, has greatly increased of late years, from the establishment of an extensive linen manufactory. The town is neatly built, consisting chiefly of two streets, crossing each other at right angles, and forming a spacious square, where a good market is held. At a short distance is Huntley Lodge, the splendid residence of the duke of Gordon. In 1801 here were 493 houses, with 2863 inhabitants.

4. *Frazerburgh*, a sea-port on the northern coast of the county, is neatly built, having several new houses covered with slate: the streets are spacious, and form a neat market-place where they cross each other;

other: in the centre of which are the town-hall and market-cross, the latter of which is a fine stone structure. The number of houses was 490, and the inhabitants 2215, in 1801.

MEARNS, OR KINCARDINESHIRE,

Situated south of Aberdeenshire, is a fertile county towards the south; but in the north-west it is mountainous and rocky. Many improvements in agriculture have of late years been introduced, which have greatly increased its population. The chief places are,

1. *Bervie*, or *Inverbervie*, an inconsiderable town, situated at the mouth of a small river, near the sea. It contains 200 houses, and 1068 inhabitants.

2. *Stonehaven*, or *Stonehive*, is another sea-port, a little to the north of the preceding. It consists chiefly of two streets of good houses, and has a small trade in sail-cloth and stockings. A few years ago it was a mere village, but is now the largest place in the county, which till lately had no town of note. It contains 300 houses, and 1200 inhabitants.

ANGUS, OR FORFARSHIRE,

To the south-west of Kincardineshire, produces wood, minerals, cattle, and game. The climate is healthy, and the soil fertile and productive. It is a flourishing county, having several extensive manufactories. The chief towns are,

1. *Forfar*, an ancient town and royal borough, situated nearly in the centre of the county. The streets are irregular, but the houses in general well built. The church is a good building, and the town-house a fine structure. A considerable manufacture of canvas, sail-cloth, sheeting, and other coarse linens, is carried on here. In 1801 it had 726 houses, and 5165 inhabitants.

2. **Dundee*, the most flourishing town of the county, is situated at the foot of a hill, on the north side of the Tay, not far from that river's influx into the ocean. It is a royal borough, and seat of a presbytery, handsomely built, and inferior to few towns in Scotland in strength, situation, and commerce. It has several fine streets running in all directions from the market-place, which is a spacious square; on the south of which stands the town-house, a very handsome building. On the east side of the square is the Trade's hall, embellished with a neat front and fine cupola: the lower part is occupied by different traders, the rooms above being the place for the different corporate bodies to meet in. Here are two churches: that of St. Andrews, or the New Church, is an elegant structure, with a fine spire, and handsome entrance. The newly erected infirmary is spacious and elegant, as well as the buildings belonging to other charities and schools. The Tay here is 2½

miles wide, and affords a safe road to vessels of large burden; and there are not less than 150 ships belonging to this port. On the quays are several ranges of newly erected warehouses. The principal manufactures are those of linen, sail-cloth, bagging, &c. for exportation; and the Dundee coloured thread has long been in high repute. In 1755 this town was returned to Dr. Webster as containing 11,000 persons; in 1795 there were 22,500; but in 1801 it contained 6952 houses, and 26,066 inhabitants.

3. **Montrose*, a royal borough and sea-port, at the estuary of South Esk river, which here forms a spacious harbour. The town is neatly built, and consists chiefly of one good street, with several intersections. The houses are modern, intermixed with some antique buildings, with the gable ends facing the street. The parish-church is a new building, very elegantly finished. The episcopal chapel is a neat fabric, with what is rarely to be met with in Scotland, an excellent organ. The old town-house is now converted into a prison, a new one having been erected, surrounded by piazzas. Of late this town has been considerably improved by the erection of a fine bridge over the river, by the island of Inchbrayoch; and from the end of it a new street has been erected, leading to the middle of the town. The harbour is a fine bason, in the form of a crescent, and is much frequented. At high water the town has the appearance of an island, being almost surrounded by the sea. Here are wet and dry docks, for the building and repairing of ships, nearly 100 belonging to this place, chiefly engaged in the Baltic and coasting trades. The principal manufactures are linen; yarn, thread, sheeting, sail-cloth, &c. with an extensive tannery, and several rope-walks. Excellent lobsters are in abundance off this coast, which are caught, and sent to the metropolis of the empire. Many very genteel families reside here, which gives the town a gay appearance. Here is an assembly room, theatre, &c. &c. In 1755 here were 3500 persons; in 1795 they were increased to 5194; and in 1801 this town contained 1010 houses, and 7974 inhabitants.

4. *Brechin*, a royal borough, 8 miles inland from Montrose, is situated on the side of a hill, on the South Esk river, over which it has a bridge of two arches. It was formerly walled round, and part of the gates still remain. Having been a bishop's see, it contains a noble cathedral, which is an ancient Gothic pile, supported by twelve pillars, and having a handsome square steeple surrounded with battlements, from whence arises a fine spire. Near this church is a curious antique round tower, of hewn stone; it is upwards of 100 feet high, and so slender as to vibrate in a high wind: but it has stood so long, that its use is forgotten; nor can the most

skilful antiquary, after the most industrious enquiry, determine for what purpose it was built. The town is large, and has one long handsome street, with several bye-lanes. The tide flows to within two miles of the town, just below which is a fine salmon fishery. The manufactures are those of flax and hemp, fabricated in various ways. The population in 1755 was 2010; in 1795 it was 3500; and in 1801 here were 756 houses, and 5466 inhabitants.

5. *Arbroath*, or *Abberbrothwick*, a royal borough, situated, as its name imports, at the mouth of the river Brothwick. It has a convenient harbour, and good coasting trade for coals and lime. The streets are irregular; but there are several good houses. Owing to the disturbances with the Northern Powers, its great Baltic trade is said to be on the decline. The ruins of an ancient castle evince its former magnificence and splendor. In 1801 here were 692 houses, and 4943 inhabitants.

PERTHSHIRE,

To the west of Angus, is situated about the centre of Scotland, and may be deemed one of its most fertile provinces. The shire is divided into several districts; viz. Monteith, Braidalbin, Athol, Strath-erne, Gowrie, Perth Proper, and Scone. But little attention is now paid to these divisions; and it is more naturally divided into the Highland and Lowland districts. The former is rugged and bleak, but beautifully interspersed with fertile and populous vallies, highly cultivated; and the latter presents as fine a soil, and rich produce, as any in the kingdom. The climate of this county partakes of all its variety of surface: the vallies are warm, and early in their vegetation; the northern parts are cold; but the whole is remarkably wholesome, and the inhabitants long-lived. Horticulture is making rapid progress in Perthshire; and the beautiful carse of Gowrie has long been famous for its fruit. In the northern district coals are found; and the mountains abound with stone and granite. The chief towns are,

1. *Perth*, the capital, is an agreeable populous town, situated twenty miles within land, on the south bank of the river Tay: it is a royal borough, second in dignity to the metropolis, and the seat of a large presbytery. The houses and streets are mostly disposed on a regular plan; an advantage which is probably derived from its standing on a large plain, while most of the other towns are situated on the declivity of hills. The entrance to the town, from the south, is by an elegant stone bridge, erected in 1771, which is one of the finest in Great Britain, and cost £26,000: the main street is full of lofty and well built houses, and is inhabited by the chief merchants of the town: most of the streets appear to have been named from

the different trades that were formerly carried on in them. Water-gate street, parallel with the Tay, is mostly composed of old buildings; at the end of it is the mansion of the Gowrie family, now converted into a barrack. The church, in which John Knox first preached the doctrines of the Reformation, is still standing, being now divided into three kirks; and at the head of the High Street has lately been erected a very handsome chapel of ease. In that part which has chiefly been erected since 1798, is a handsome terrace of elegant houses; and also a circus and other places of public amusement. Here is also a literary society, and another of antiquarians. The staple manufacture of Perth is that of linen; but of late years that of cotton has been introduced with great success; and it is computed that upwards of 1500 looms are daily at work in the town: there are also extensive manufactories of leather, boots, shoes, gloves, &c. Several of the trades are incorporated, and have good halls; but that of the glovers is by far the most elegant. Here are two banks, and a beautiful grammar school, said to be the finest in Scotland. The quays are spacious, and convenient for loading and unloading vessels; and the salmon fishery of the Tay is very productive. In the neighbouring villages are extensive bleaching-grounds, and print-fields. The manners of Perth are gay; and, from its appearance, it may be said to be not unlike some of our English county-towns. The environs are interesting, particularly the hill of Kinnoul, which presents very curious scenes to the view of the passenger. At Scone, one mile distant, supposed to be the centre of the kingdom, is a royal palace, on the north bank of the Tay, famous in former ages for the adjoining abbey, founded for the monks of the order of St. Augustine. Here the kings of Scotland were crowned in the regal chair, said to be brought by Fergus from Ireland, including in its bottom a rough marble-stone. It was removed from hence by Edward I. of England, and deposited in Westminster Abbey, where it still continues, as an appendage to the coronation chair of our monarchs. At this place the Pretender resided three weeks, while his general, the earl of Mar, lay with his forces at Perth. In 1755 the population of Perth was about 7000; in 1795 it contained upwards of 11,000; and in 1801 it was returned as having 1353 houses, and 14878 inhabitants; exclusive of the suburbs of Kinnoul, which contained 272 houses, and 1887 inhabitants. From that period to 1804 it increased rapidly to an united population of upwards of 20,000 persons; but, owing to the war, several spirited speculations have miscarried, which has reduced the population to about the number in 1801.

2. *Downe*, an inland town, situated on the river Teith, consisting of three principal streets uniting

in the centre, and forming a handsome market-place, with a fine cross. An extensive cotton manufactory, called the Adelphi, has lately been established here; and the town is particularly noted for its Highland pistols. It contains 450 houses, and 3044 inhabitants.

3. *Crieff*, a small town pleasantly situated at the foot of the Grampian mountains. Here is a good bridge over the river Earn, and a fine town-hall, with a neat spire; and also a good assembly-room frequented by the gentry of the Perth hunt. The streets are spacious, and the houses in general well built. In 1801 here were 450 houses, and 2876 inhabitants.

4. *Dumblane*, a market-town, situated on the banks of the Allan, on the eastern side of which stand the venerable remains of its cathedral, founded by king David, in 1142; the choir of which is still kept in repair as the parish-church. The town is ancient; and the houses are of a similar appearance, intermixed with several modern buildings. It contains 493 houses, with 2619 inhabitants.

5. *Dunkeld*, a very ancient town on the north bank of the river Tay, 56 miles from Edinburgh, was formerly the capital of the ancient kingdom of Caledonia. It is a burgh of barony, governed by a bailie appointed by the duke of Athol. The principal street is on a line with the Tay, and has some good houses. The ruins of its ancient cathedral, which is partly of Saxon and partly of Gothic architecture, are very magnificent. The choir is still entire, and is now converted into the parish-church: the tower, at the end of the north aisle, is handsome, and has a remarkable rent from top to bottom, near two inches wide. Near the cathedral is the Athol mansion, which is only a plain building. Here is a good weekly market; and six annual fairs are held here, some of which are very fully attended by the Highlanders from a considerable distance, as this is the only town of any note in the centre of Scotland for a great circuit towards the north. In 1801 here were 123 houses, and 1183 inhabitants.

FIFESHIRE,

To the south-east of Perthshire, is a fine county; the soil being extremely fertile, well cultivated, and abounding throughout with woods and plantations. The sheep are famous for the fineness of their fleeces. The chief mineral produce of this county is coal and lime-stone; the whole of the south part of the county being a stratum of the former article, from whence Edinburgh and other parts are supplied at a reasonable rate. The air is temperate; and the climate is said to be not only healthy, but the most settled and regular of any in the kingdom. The chief places are,

1. *Cupar*, a royal borough, and the county-town of this shire, is pleasantly situated on the north bank of the river Eden, 29 miles from Edinburgh. The streets are neat and clean, being well built, mostly with new houses. The church is a new edifice, with an elegant spire. The chief manufactures of this place are coarse linens and leather. It has a fine town-hall, and is governed by a provost and other officers. In 1755 here were 2000 inhabitants; in 1795, 3135; and according to the return in 1801, the number of houses was 772, with 4463 persons.

2. **Dunfermline*, a royal borough, and the most considerable town in the county, is situated on a high hill on the small river Lyne, three miles from the frith of Forth. Several of the streets are spacious and well built, and many of the houses are modern and commodious. It has a good weekly market, and eight annual fairs, which are greatly frequented. The peculiar manufacture of this place is that of diaper table-linen, of which there are several extensive manufactories both in the town and neighbourhood, that are supposed to employ near 1500 looms. Here was formerly a splendid castle, the favourite residence of several Scottish monarchs, who have founded a splendid monastery of Benedictines, which was partly demolished by Edward I. and other English monarchs: the remaining parts of it, with the addition of a steeple, now form the parish-church. In 1801 this town and parish were returned as containing 1498 houses, and 9980 inhabitants.

3. *St. Andrews*, an ancient city, standing on the sea-shore, about 47 miles from Edinburgh. Its towers and spires give it a most magnificent appearance at a distance; but, on entering the city, the expectation is damped by finding the streets nearly covered with grass; and it presents such a solitude throughout as to resemble a town deserted on account of the plague. In 513 this was an episcopal see; and in 1441 it was erected into an archbishopric, and had a most magnificent cathedral, hardly a vestige of which is now remaining. It was 160 years in building; "but, alas!" says an elegant writer, "there is no security for human grandeur. John Knox, a violent bigot, inflamed with unchristian zeal to promote the reformed religion by destroying the Catholics, instigated a number of his followers to attack and pull to pieces this ancient city, together with the cathedral, which they destroyed in one day (1559), its remains being now only a heap of scattered ruins; leaving a sad example of the ill consequences of yielding to ill-governed passion and blind zeal, which could not distinguish between that justifiable opposition that might be evinced against the errors of popery, and the destruction of several of those beautiful edifices which, even to this day, would have

have continued the ornaments of the country." The university once had three colléges; but they are now reduced to two. The harbour of St. Andrews is of little consequence, though the sea runs up to the town; it formerly had a very considerable trade, particularly in the fisheries, but it is now nearly gone to decay. This place is famous for the making of golf balls, which employs a number of hands: they are made by stuffing a quantity of feathers into a leather case, by the help of an iron rod with a wooden handle pressed against the breast, which seldom fails to bring on a consumption in the labourer. The town is about a mile in circuit, and consists of three principal streets. In 1801 it contained 348 houses, and 4566 inhabitants, including the university.

4. *Dysart*, a royal borough, on the shore of the frith of Forth, has about 700 looms employed in the manufacture of checks only; a number of hands are also occupied in ship-building. It has a very good harbour; and about 30 vessels are employed in the coal and foreign trade. Vast quantities of salt are made in the neighbourhood. The parish contains several extensive iron works, and together with the town was returned as containing 835 houses, and 5385 inhabitants.

5. *Kirkcaldy*, a royal borough and sea-port, on the frith of Forth, the inhabitants of which are chiefly employed in the manufacture of checks, tickings, leather, and cotton. It consists chiefly of one long, narrow, winding, and ill-built street, along the foot of a bank, with some narrow lanes on each side. The harbour is much improved of late years. Here are 354 houses, and 3248 inhabitants.

The *Island of May*, about a mile and a half in circumference, lies seven miles from the coast of Fife, almost opposite to the rock of Bass. It formerly belonged to the priory of Pittenweem, and was dedicated to St. Adrian, supposed to have been martyred in this place by the Danes; and hither, in times of Popish superstition, barren women used to come and worship at his shrine, in hopes of being cured of their sterility. Here are a tower and a lighthouse, built by a Mr. Cunningham, to whom king Charles I. granted the island in fee, with power to exact two-pence per ton from every ship that passes, for the maintenance of the lighthouse.

KINROSS-SHIRE,

To the west of Fife, is a small county of nearly a circular form. It is very fertile; and the face of the country has a very rich appearance, having several handsome seats. The middle part of the county is occupied by that beautiful expansion of water called Loch Leven. Its only town is,

Kinross, a small town, beautifully situated at the

western extremity of Loch Leven, on the high road between Edinburgh and Perth. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in the manufacture of Silesias and coarse cottons. The houses are ancient, interspersed with several modern buildings. It contained 379 houses, and 2124 inhabitants.

CLACKMANNANSHIRE,

To the south-west of Kinross, produces good corn and pasturage, rising gradually from the frith of Forth to the Ochill mountains, which produce lead, copper, antimony, cobalt, iron stone, and plenty of coal. This and the preceding county send one member to parliament alternately. The chief towns are,

1. *Clackmannan*, the county-town, is situated on a high hill 190 feet above the level of the sea. The main street is broad and spacious, but many of the houses are mean. It contains 710 houses, and 2961 inhabitants.

2. **Alloa*, a thriving sea-port, situated at the upper end of the frith of Forth, 20 miles higher than Leith. It has a commodious harbour, and excellent dry dock, capable of receiving ships of the largest burden; and here are several manufactures, particularly of glass bottles. The streets are spacious, and the houses modern, great part of it having been erected within a few years. It is remarkable for its castle, the tower of which is 89 feet high, with walls 11 feet thick, built in the 13th century. This town has two good weekly markets, and carries on a great trade in coals. In 1795, according to the statistical account, it contained 2791 persons, which in 1801 were found to have increased to 5214.

STIRLINGSHIRE,

To the west of Clackmannan, is a fertile county, particularly in the eastern district. In former times it was one entire forest, vestiges of which still remain near the town of Stirling. Being a frontier county, it has been the scene of many bloody actions; and here the heroes of Ossian performed gallant exploits. It abounds with lead, coals, iron, and lime-stone. The chief towns are,

1. *Stirling*, the capital of the county, which derives its name from *Ster*, a Saxon word, signifying "hill," and *Lin*, "water," was anciently called *Binobara*, of the same signification in the Scottish language. The town stands about 30 miles from Edinburgh, on the descent of a hill, at the top of which is a stately old castle, of which the earls of Mar were formerly hereditary castellans, kept in repair and garrisoned by the government. The town is enclosed with a wall, except towards the north, where the part of a fosse is supplied by the river Forth, over which the inhabitants have built a stone bridge, consisting of four stately arches, and

and secured with an iron gate. Here are two churches, called the East and West Kirks; the former is an elegant structure. The town-house is a large building; and in the council-chamber is kept the *jug* appointed by law as the standard of the dry measure in Scotland. The town of Stirling has much the appearance of the old town of Edinburgh, the situation being upon a rock, with lofty houses, and, in general, narrow streets. Its manufactures are carpets, ticking, and shalloons. In 1801 it had 614 houses, with 5256 inhabitants.

2. *Falkirk*, a large manufacturing town, and formerly a royal borough, stands on an eminence 12 miles from Stirling. It is noted for its great fairs, or, as they are called, *trysts*; at which, it is supposed, not less than 60,000 head of black cattle are sold annually, besides sheep and other animals. In the neighbourhood are several extensive suburbs, and some of the largest manufactories in the kingdom, particularly the Carron iron-works, of which a description will be found under the head of *Trade and Manufactures*. In 1801 here were 1767 houses, and 8873 inhabitants.

3. *St. Ninian's*, a considerable town, of modern erection, upon the river Forth. It is situated in the midst of extensive manufactories of iron, nails, cotton, and tartan plaids for the army. In the neighbourhood are several elegant mansions. It contained 1324 houses, and 6849 inhabitants.

DUMBARTONSHIRE,

On the west of Stirlingshire, toward the north is hilly, being mostly covered with heath, and having several extensive forests; but towards the south it is pleasant and fertile. It contains several fine lakes, that of Loch Lomond being the finest in Great Britain. The chief towns are,

1. *Dumbarton*, the county-town, which bestows its name upon the shire, is a small inconsiderable royal borough, situated near the conflux of the Clyde and Leven, and at present remarkable only for its castle, which is large, and formed on a very singular construction. It is a steep rock, rising up into two points, and every where inaccessible, except by a very narrow passage, or entry, fortified with a strong wall and rampart. Within this wall is the guard-house, with lodgings for the officers; and from hence a long flight of stone steps ascends to the upper-part of the castle, where there are several batteries mounted with cannon. It is a very ancient town, said to have been one of the seats of Fingal. The chief of the buildings are old and mean, and it has the appearance of a decayed town: here are two extensive glass-houses. This town contains 327 houses, and 2549 inhabitants.

2. *Luss*, a small town, is remarkable only for its

romantic situation on the borders of Loch Lomond, into which it projects, being built upon a peninsula. It has a fine church, and an elegant mansion, most beautifully situated close by the lake, belonging to Sir James Culquhoun. Here are 188 houses, and 998 inhabitants.

LINLITHGOWSHIRE, OR WEST LOTHIAN,

To the south of the frith of Forth, is a fertile county; the soil is one of the richest in Scotland, being a strong loam, and in a high state of cultivation. The chief products are coal, lead, and iron. The climate is warm and salubrious. The chief towns are,

1. *Linlithgow*, a royal borough, situated inland, about seven miles south of the frith of Forth, consists chiefly of one long street, three quarters of a mile in length, and having many good houses. The town-house is an elegant building; opposite to which is a curious fountain, from which the water issues by eight spouts, through grotesque figures. Near the centre of the town is the church, which is a noble piece of Gothic architecture, having a fine spire, over which is the figure of an imperial crown. The chief manufactures are leather and coarse woollen cloth. Here was formerly a most magnificent castle, or rather palace of the Scottish monarchs: it was kept in good repair till accidentally set on fire by a party of the royal army, in 1756, who were quartered in the hall: in this building the unfortunate queen Mary was born. This town contains 467 houses, with 3594 inhabitants.

2. *Borrowstowness*, a flourishing town on the south side of the frith of Forth, having one of the finest harbours of the frith. The houses are good, and the streets regular. A considerable trade is carried on in ship-building; and there are several extensive manufactories of salt and stoneware. It contains 330 houses, and 2790 inhabitants.

EDINBURGHSHIRE, OR MID-LOTHIAN,

To the east of Linlithgow, is a pleasant county, having much level ground interspersed with several hills, finely watered with numerous streamlets. The arable land, which is about one-third of the whole, is in a high state of cultivation; but the climate is very uncertain, exhibiting frequently in one day all the seasons of the year. From its vicinity to the metropolis it contains many elegant seats of the nobility and gentry. The chief places are,

1. *Edinburgh*, the capital of Scotland, and formerly the residence of its kings. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territory reached to the frith of Forth, and who, it is supposed, gave his name to a castle and fort erected here, which did not fall into the hands of the Scots till

till the reign of Indulphus, in 953*. The town was built for the protection the castle afforded; and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived. After being taken from and retaken by the Scots; this town and fortress was destroyed by Robert Bruce, and suffered to be in ruins for many years, till it was rebuilt by Edw. III. who strongly garrisoned it. In 1341 the Scots finally wrested it out of the hands of the English, from which time it became the seat of government, and hence it received many privileges. Soon after the overthrow of James IV. at Flodden Field, this city was nearly depopulated by the plague, which caused the inhabitants to destroy a number of its buildings that had been infected. But in 1504 we find that it had nearly recovered its former appearance, having been neatly rebuilt with wood. The castle stood a long siege, being held for the unfortunate queen Mary, but at length was obliged to surrender. On the accession of James to the crown of England it still continued the metropolis of this part of Great Britain, and the place where the parliament assembled: and since the period of the Union, has continued the seat of its executive government.

At present, this city consists of what is called the Old and New Towns. The former stands on a narrow steep hill, full a mile in length, and terminated on the west by an abrupt rocky precipice, on which the castle stands. To the east is a gentle declivity, having the palace of Holyrood House standing on a delightful plain called the King's Park. The High Street runs along the hill from the castle to the palace; and from the length, width, and height of the houses, is perhaps the most remarkable in Europe. In the middle stands the Tolbooth, an old building, which it has long been in contemplation to remove. Near it stands the fine Gothic cathedral, dedicated to St. Giles, containing four places of worship, and a room where the General Assembly sits. It has a lofty square tower, from whence arise several neat arches, terminating in a point, and supporting a very handsome spire; the whole ornamented with small turrets, intended to exhibit the resemblance of an imperial crown. At a small distance is the old Parliament House, now occupied by the Courts of Session and Exchequer. The room built by Charles I. for the Parliament House, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster Hall; and its roof, executed in the same manner, has been by good judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the Lord Ordinary, presides by rotation.

In a room near it sit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, shrievalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; with the valuable library of the lawyers, which equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquisite taste and judgment. It has likewise the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scottish history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals. Opposite the High Street is the Royal Exchange, a fine building, with a neat appearance; it cost £31,500, and was built at the sole expence of George Drummond, Esquire. The end of this street is terminated by Holyrood House, a neat building in the form of a square, surrounded by piazzas, the apartments of which were lately occupied by some of the unfortunate royal family of France. Apartments are also kept here for the commander in chief of North Britain, and for the duke of Hamilton, who is the hereditary keeper of the palace. In the great hall the nobles choose the 16 peers. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finished by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction, of Sir William Bruce, a Scotchman of family, and one of the greatest architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern artists, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it stood when repaired and ornamented by James VI. is thought to have been a most elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rows of stone galleries, supported with curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inside was demolished and rifled of its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repositories of the dead, and discovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his first queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel gave way, and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occasioned by the enormous weight of a new stone roof, laid over it some years before, which the walls were unable to support. The environs of this palace afford an asylum for insolvent debtors; and the park, or St. Anne's Yard, being also within the limits,

* Great diversity of opinion prevails among the learned as to the origin of this name; but the majority seem inclined to think that the statement we have given is the most correct; while others have an idea, that it received its name from the number of pleasant gardens with which it is surrounded, and from thence called *Edenburgh*, now corrupted into *Edinburgh*.

they are there allowed the benefits of air and exercise.

The ancient castle of Edinburgh, standing at the western extremity of the hill, on which the Old Town is built, consists of an area of six acres; it is situated on a rock, which in many places rises 300 feet perpendicular, and is only accessible from the Castle Hill, or road from the town, on which side it is defended by an outward barrier of pallisades: within are a dry ditch, draw-bridge, and gate defended by two flanking batteries; the whole commanded by a half-moon battery, mounted with heavy ordnance of brass. Beyond this are two gate-ways; the first is very strong, and has two portcullisses: farther on is another battery of eight guns; beyond which is the great arsenal, containing 8000 stand of arms, a bomb-proof magazine, and various other gun and mortar batteries. On the west side of this building are some new and handsome barracks. It has a governor (generally a nobleman), lieutenant-governor, fort major, and other officers. But, notwithstanding its natural strength, it could not stand a regular siege, none of its fortifications, except the magazine, being bomb-proof; added to which, the splinters from the rock would be very destructive to the garrison. This castle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the New Town, and a rich neighbouring country, but commands a most extensive prospect of the river Forth, the shipping, the opposite coast of Fife, and even some hills at the distance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands.

From the confined space and great demand for houses in the neighbourhood of the court, the buildings of the Old Town are of an enormous height, some of them twelve or thirteen stories, each of which generally contains a suite of rooms, sufficiently large and commodious for the use of a family; and the access to these different lodgings is by a common staircase, exposed to inconveniences arising from steepness, darkness, and filth.

Between the Old and the New Town lies a narrow bottom, or vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a sheet of water, bordered by a terrace-walk, and the ascent towards the New Town covered with pleasure-gardens, shrubberies &c. But this elegant design fell to nothing, through the narrow ideas of the magistrates, who finding greater benefits by letting ground to inferior tradesmen upon building leases, this spot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuisance to those persons who had been so liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the summit. A decision of the House of Lords put a stop to these mean erections. At the west or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern ex-

tremity is bounded by a striking object of art—a lofty, elegant bridge, called the North bridge, the middle arch being 90 feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) very commodious. In like manner the South bridge has been thrown over the valley in which the Cowgate runs; on which there are well built houses and shops on both sides, excepting the middle arch. The ground for building on this spot, which, before the improvement, was of little or no value, sold in one lot at £151,000 per acre! but the general price was from 80 to £96,000 per acre!

The New Town stands on an elevated plain, north of the old city, and is united to it by the North bridge, and a mound, which is formed of the earth and rubbish, dug up on framing the foundations of the new buildings; it is 800 feet in length, 400 in breadth, 92 high, and is computed to contain 1,300,000 cart-loads of earth. This part of the city was begun in 1769, and is composed of handsome and elegant buildings; it consists of three parallel streets, nearly a mile in length, intersected with cross streets, at regular and convenient distances: the most northerly is called Queen Street, being 100 feet broad, the south side of which is only built, commanding an extensive view of the frith of Forth. The southern is Princes Street, which affords a pleasing view of the Old Town, the castle, and fortifications; at the end stands the West Kirk, an elegant new church, with a fine spire. The middle or George Street is not so long as the other two, being terminated at the end of St. Andrew's, or Charlotte's Square. In this street stands St. Andrew's church, a very handsome building, near which is situated the Physician's Hall, a neat fabric, with a portico of eight handsome Corinthian pillars. At the north end of the North bridge, are the register office, and the theatre; the first is the office of the lord register of Scotland, and is a handsome building, with a tower, an arch end, and a cupola in the centre, and contains 97 vaulted apartments for the various clerks. The theatre has a neat portico, ornamented on the top with a statue of Shakespeare, supported by the tragic and comic muses. Near this, in the Lath Walk, is also an equestrian amphitheatre; opposite to which is Calton Hill, whereon stand the observatory and a newly-erected Bridewell. At the south end of the South bridge is the university, of which a description will be given, under that article. St. George's Square, the largest in Edinburgh, is situated at the south side of the Old Town, and contains many elegant houses, among which is a neat subscription assembly room, and in Niddry Street is the concert, or St. Cecilia's hall, built after the model of the Opera house, at Parma, in the year 1776.

Amongst the numerous public charities of Edinburgh, that which first takes our attention, is the hospital founded by George Heriot, goldsmith to James VI. commonly called Heriot's Work, standing in a noble situation on the south-west of the castle. This structure is the most regular specimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to Queen Anne, wife of James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and by far exceeds any thing of that kind to be seen in England. It is, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradesmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates. The others worthy of particular notice are—Watson's Hospital for the children of decayed members of the Merchants' Company, erected in 1738—the Orphan Hospital for 50 girls—the Merchants' Maiden Hospital—the Trades' Maiden Hospital—Gillespie's Hospital for decayed old Merchants—three schools—an Asylum for the Blind—and a Royal Infirmary, erected in 1738, (with an elegant front, adorned with a fine statue of George II. in a Roman habit) capable of accommodating 300 patients—besides a good Dispensary, erected in 1776. For the study of philosophy and general literature, there are many institutions; such as the Royal Antiquarian, Speculative, Royal Medical, and Royal Physical Societies. In addition to the theatres already mentioned for amusement, are the Royal Society of Archers, the Company of Golfers and Hunters, and the Royal Menage for riding.

The city is governed by a town council, who have the direction of all public affairs within the jurisdiction of the city. It consists of 33 members, including the councillors ordinary and extraordinary: from these are chosen the lord provost, a dean of the guild, four bailies, and a treasurer. The lord provost is high sheriff, coroner, and admiral, within the city and liberties, and the town and harbour of Leith, and has the jurisdiction of matters respecting life and death; the bailies have jurisdiction under the lord provost; and the dean of the guild has the charge of all public buildings, so that no erections can be undertaken without his warrant. The revenues of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in most of the bodies corporate in Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two-thirds of a farthing; laid on every Scotch pint of ale (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts of the city. This is a most judicious impost, as it renders the poorest people insensible of the burden. Its product, however, has been sufficient to defray the expence of supplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes from the distance

of four miles; of erecting reservoirs; enlarging the harbour of Leith; and completing other public works of great expence and utility. The streets are guarded every evening by a patrol of the town guard, as well as by regular watchmen. The markets of Edinburgh are abundantly supplied with provisions of all kinds. The manners and habits of this metropolis are widely different from those of the country in general; approaching, in every respect, towards those of the capital of the empire.

Leith, which stands about two miles distant from the Old Town, is now nearly united to it by a continued range of buildings. It stands on both sides the harbour, which divides it into North and South Leith. The harbour is formed by a noble stone pier, which was built in the beginning of the last century, at the confluence of the little river Leith with the frith of Forth. On the north side is a convenient new quay for the landing of goods; and a wet dock has been lately constructed within high-water mark, under the auspices of the town council of Edinburgh. The commerce of this place is very considerable, especially with the ports of the Baltic, Holland, and the West Indies; a great number of vessels are also employed in the Greenland whale-fishery, and the coasting trade is in every way respectable. In addition to the usual employments of a sea-port, there are six glass-houses, several soap-works, a sugar-house, a manufactory for carpets, and extensive iron works. The streets of the town are narrow and confined, except those which have been built within the last twenty years, which certainly have some claim to uniformity. The government of the town is vested in magistrates appointed by the council of Edinburgh.

Edinburgh, besides its numerous kirks, has places of worship for the different classes of Dissenters, &c. In 1755 this city was returned to Dr. Webster as containing 57,000 inhabitants; these, according to the statistical account of Sir John Sinclair, amounted in 1795 to 88,000, including Leith; and according to the return under the population act, in 1801, here were 9002 houses, and 82,580 inhabitants; of which 1510 houses, and 15,292 inhabitants, composed the town of Leith.

2. *Musselburgh*, a considerable sea-port, seated at the mouth of the river Esk, which divides it into two parts. It is an ancient town, and several of the houses have an old appearance, intermixed with many of modern erection, neatly built of stone. It contains 800 houses, and 4015 inhabitants.

3. *Dalkeith*, a handsome town, six miles from Edinburgh, is situated on the Esk, over which it has a beautiful stone bridge. Few manufactures are carried on here, but it has one of the greatest corn markets in Scotland. The grammar school is

in high repute. It contains 487 houses, and 3906 inhabitants.

HADDINGTONSHIRE, OR EAST LOTHIAN,

To the east of Edinburgh, is a very fertile and well cultivated county, producing abundance of grain. Several branches of the linen and woollen manufacture, together with the making of salt, are carried on here. It abounds with coals, free-stone, and lime-stone; the climate is mild and agreeable. The chief towns are,

1. *Haddington*, a royal borough on the river Tyne, 17 miles from Edinburgh. It consists chiefly of four streets intersecting each other at right angles. The houses are well built; and the toll-booth, erected in 1748, is a neat fabric; and here is a large and commodious school. The parish church was originally a Franciscan monastery, and is still a venerable structure. There is also a neat Episcopal chapel, and a good bridge of three arches across the river, which unites the town to its suburb of Nungate. The chief manufacture is coarse woollen cloth. In 1801 here were 807 houses, and 4549 inhabitants.

2. *Dunbar*, a royal borough and sea-port, seated on a small eminence at the bottom of Dunbar bay. The houses are mostly new, regularly built, and well supplied with water. The harbour is safe, being defended by a strong battery. Here is a large and convenient dry dock, with two considerable rope walks; and the inhabitants have a good export trade in corn. It has a considerable share in the fisheries; and a number of vessels belong to this port. Here were 696 houses, and 3951 inhabitants.

3. *Preston-Pans*, a town situated on the coast of the frith of Forth, famous for its manufacture of salt, stone, earthen-ware, oil of vitriol, aqua fortis, &c. It consists principally of one long street; containing 260 houses, with 1964 inhabitants.

BERWICKSHIRE,

South of Haddingtonshire, is in the eastern part rich and fertile; but on the south, and towards the west, hilly and barren. Agriculture has of late years made rapid improvements; and the climate is sharp, but salubrious. The chief places are,

1. *Dunse*, the county-town of this shire, stands 14 miles north-west from Berwick-upon-Tweed; near the centre of the county. The houses are in general neat, and the streets regular; its castle is a most stately building, commanding an extensive prospect. At a small distance is an extensive woollen manufactory, and a large bleach-field. It contained 449 houses, and 3157 inhabitants.

2. *Coldstream*, a market-town on the river Tweed, over which it has a neat bridge, that unites the two

kingdoms. It is a great thoroughfare, and has some good inns, but contains little worthy particular notice. Here were 390 houses, and 2269 inhabitants.

3. *Lauder*, an ancient royal borough, was formerly a place of note, but is now gone to decay, the present appearance of the town being mean and ill built. It contains 339 houses, and 1760 inhabitants.

RENFREWSHIRE,

To the south of Dumbartonshire, from which it is divided by the river Clyde. The face of the country is variegated with hill and dale, wood and water; but the greater part of the soil is barren, and inclining to moor. The inhabitants are chiefly devoted to trade, and most of the towns and villages contain extensive manufactories. The climate is moist, but salubrious. The chief places are,

1. *Renfrew*, a royal borough and the county-town, is pleasantly situated on the river Cart, five miles west of Glasgow. It consists of one long narrow street, about half a mile in length, with several bye-lanes; but, notwithstanding its excellent situation, its trade is inconsiderable: the principal is the manufacture of thread, together with some soap and candle-works. In 1801 it had 426 houses, and 2031 inhabitants.

2. **Paisley*, a large manufacturing town, and the third in the kingdom in point of population, is situated on the river Cart, five miles south-west of Glasgow, and 46 from Edinburgh: it is a place of considerable antiquity, but has only risen to its present celebrity within a few years. It is situated on both sides of the river; that part on the west side being called the Old Town; and the opposite, or eastern side, the New Town, which are united by three handsome bridges. The Old Town occupies an extent of a mile square: but the New Town is much more extensive, and contains an ancient church, which formerly was a noble abbey. This part of the town is very handsomely built in general, and the streets are laid out in a regular manner, though not at right angles. The marquis of Abercorn has erected here one of the handsomest inns in the kingdom. The town-house is an elegant building of cut stone, having a lofty spire; and the butchers' market, having an elegant front of hewn stone, is very commodious. This town, in the beginning of the last century, was described as consisting chiefly of one street, about half a mile in length, but it is now considered as the first manufacturing town in Scotland; and many of the streets and lanes are named from the various branches carried on in each. One of the principal manufactories is that of gauze, in the different branches of which it is supposed nearly 10,000 persons are employed. The silk works have considerably

derably declined; but those of muslin, cotton, and thread, have greatly increased. Here are also several manufactories of soap, candles, tape, and ribbons; the yearly produce of which in 1789 was £660,385, and in 1802 the amount was upwards of £1,000,000 sterling. Paisley is governed by three bailies, a treasurer, town-clerk and seventeen councillors; its population in 1700 is supposed not to have exceeded 2000; in 1755 it was 4290; in 1793, 13,800; and in 1801 here were 2747 houses, and 31,179 inhabitants, of whom 11,186 were returned as being employed in trade and manufacture.

3. **Greenock*, a large sea-port at the mouth of the river Clyde, eighteen miles from Glasgow, has rather a confined and inelegant appearance, although containing many well built houses. Its harbour is very commodious, having lately been improved at a great expence; the bason, formed between two semicircular quays, contains a sufficient depth of water for the largest vessels. Formerly the principal part of the commerce of this place depended upon that of Glasgow, the merchants of that city being the principal owners of the shipping; but now the greatest part is carried on by merchants residing here. In the year 1804, 1029 ships, carrying 78,275 tons and 5665 men, entered this port. The chief manufactures carried on are those of sail-cloth, cordage, and other articles for ships, as well as nets for the fisheries, in which a great number of hands are employed; and here are several large sugar-houses. Greenock (besides its trade in the herring-fishery, of which 45,000 barrels were entered at the custom-house in the year 1791, and since then much increased) has for many years carried on an extensive trade with the United States of America and our West India islands, exporting thither the muslins and other manufactures of the adjacent districts, and importing cotton, sugar, and, indeed, all kinds of colonial produce. In the beginning of the last century this town was merely a collection of huts, constructed by fishermen; and in 1730 the number of inhabitants scarcely amounted to 300; but from the encouragements since given to the fishing trade, they amounted in 1755 to 3000; in 1795 to 12,800; and in 1801 to 17,458 inhabitants, and 1029 houses, of which latter the Tontine Inn, where the inhabitants meet for the transaction of business, is well worthy attention.

4. *Port Glasgow*, a sea-port town, situated on the south side of the Clyde, four miles above Greenock. Here are several extensive warehouses, belonging to the merchants of Glasgow, who feued the ground on which the town stands, in 1668, for the accommodation of their shipping. The town lies low, and the streets are irregular. It contained 435 houses, and 3865 inhabitants.

AYRSHIRE,

To the south of Renfrew, is divided into three districts, or *stewarties*, which bear the names of *Kyle*, *Cunningham*, and *Carrick*. Carrick, and the interior parts of Kyle, are mountainous; while the other parts present a fine level country, interspersed with towns and fine seats. The inhabitants being chiefly devoted to trade, agriculture till within a few years has been neglected, but it is now greatly improved. This county abounds in coals; the climate is moist, but in general wholesome. The chief places are,

1. **Ayr*, a royal borough, pleasantly situated at the influx of the rivers Doon and Ayr into the Atlantic Ocean. The principal street is broad and spacious, and the houses elegantly built. Its form is nearly that of a crescent, having the town-hall in the centre, with a beautiful spire 150 feet high. The principal trade of this place is the exportation of coals to Ireland, in which a number of vessels are employed. It formerly had a considerable foreign trade; but being successfully opposed by the city of Glasgow, it went to decay; though within a few years it has again revived, and the town is greatly increased. It contains 727 houses, and 5492 inhabitants.

2. *Kilmarnock*, an inland town, situated on both sides of the river Irvine. It is very irregularly built; and the houses are old, intermixed with several of modern erection. The church is a fine building; and there are, besides, several places of worship for the different denominations of Dissenters. This town has long been famous for its manufacture of Scotch carpeting, woollen cloths, and sadlery. In one of the areas of the town stands a stone pillar of elegant workmanship, in memory of Lord Soules, who was killed on the spot by an arrow in 1444. Here were 1091 houses, and 8079 inhabitants, in 1801.

3. *Irvine*, a sea-port town and royal borough, pleasantly situated at the mouth of a river of the same name, in a dry and airy situation, and having one broad street nearly the whole length of the town, in which the houses are generally well built. The principal part of the town is situated on the north side of the river; but there is a good row of houses on the south side, connected by a handsome bridge. The church is a fine building, having a lofty spire. The harbour is commodious; and the principal trade, like that of Ayr, is with Ireland in coals, to which country upwards of 24,000 chaldrons are annually exported. In 1790 there were 51 vessels belonging to this port. Here is a dock-yard for ship-building, a large tan-yard, a ropewalk, and bleaching-field. In 1801 this town contained 710 houses, and 4581 inhabitants.

4. *Girvan*, a sea-port town, situated to the south of

of the town of Ayr, is neatly built, and has several fine streets. It has a considerable trade in the exportation of coals and the weaving of cotton; and contained 440 houses, and 2260 inhabitants, in 1801.

WIGTONSHIRE,

To the south-west of Ayrshire, is tolerably fertile on the coast, but in the interior it is bleak and barren; and agricultural improvements are but in their infancy. The climate is wet, but healthy. The chief places are,

1. *Wigton*, a royal borough, and the seat of a presbytery, is situated near the mouth of a river, in the bay of the same name, 11 miles in breadth, at the distance of 88 miles from Edinburgh. It has a tolerable harbour, and is well situated for trade; but this being entirely neglected, the town is very poor, and thinly inhabited, containing only 274 houses, and 1475 inhabitants.

2. *Newton Stewart*, or *Newton Douglas*, a considerable town, situated on the river Cree, on the high road from Dumfries to Port Patrick. Of late years a considerable cotton manufactory has been introduced here, also another for carpets, and a tannery. Here are 574 houses, and 2569 inhabitants.

3. *Whithorn*, a royal borough, on the bay of Wigton, where a small river falls into the harbour. The houses are neatly built; and a beautiful stream of water runs through the principal street. In the centre of the town stands the town-hall, adorned with turrets and a fine spire. It contained 363 houses, and 1904 inhabitants.

4. *Port Patrick*, a neat sea-port, beautifully situated on the coast of the Irish sea. It is surrounded on all sides, except the south, by a ridge of small hills in the form of an amphitheatre. The harbour was formerly very small, being a mere inlet of the sea between two ridges of rocks; but it has now one of the finest quays in Britain, with a reflecting light-house, and is the regular station of the packets that sail to and from Ireland. Forty years ago it contained only about 100 inhabitants; in 1790, they were 512; and in 1801 here were 206 houses, and 1090 inhabitants, which have since considerably increased.

LANARKSHIRE,

To the east of Renfrewshire, is divided into three wards, known by the names of the Upper, the Middle, and the Lower wards; the upper and lower wards are hilly and bleak, affording little ground fit for tillage, and abounding in lead and iron ores. The middle ward is rich and fertile, affording all the necessaries, and many of the luxuries of life. The chief manufacture is that of cotton, which is carried on in this county to an

amazing extent; the quantity of cotton wool imported into the river Clyde in 1804 being 39,000 bags, which, averaging £200 each, amounted to £7,800,000 sterling. The chief places are,

1. *Lanark*, an ancient royal borough, 26 miles from Glasgow; it stands on a rising ground near the river Clyde, and consists principally of five neat streets, with several lanes &c.; and has many new buildings. The borough is a distinct place from the suburbs; which, by way of distinction, have been termed New Lanark, and have of late been much extended, to accommodate the persons employed in several large cotton mills. The houses are all of stone, elegant and lofty, and the streets broad and spacious. In 1801 here were 642 houses, and 4692 inhabitants.

2. *Glasgow*, an ancient city, situated on a gentle declivity, sloping towards the river Clyde, 35 miles west of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the second city in Scotland; and, considering its size, the first in Great Britain as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved, and consequently clean. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high; many of them, towards the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. The cathedral is a stupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture: it contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a very fine spire, springing from a tower; the whole being reeked with a masterly and matchless fabric. There are also seven other churches, all of neat appearance; and places of worship for all descriptions of religious worshippers. The town-house is an elegant building, adorned in front with a range of Ionic pilasters, elevated on strong pillars with arches, forming a piazza. Opposite this is the Exchange, a square building, ornamented with an equestrian statue of William III. Near the town-house is the toll-booth, having a new lofty spire. The Guildhall in Bridge Street is a fine building, with an elegant spire 200 feet high; and in this city are numerous and well-endowed charities, both for young and old. Over the Clyde are three good bridges, one of which is of modern erection. The Clyde was formerly so shallow that it would not admit vessels of burden up to the town; but since 1771, this, in a great measure, has been obviated at considerable expence. This city carries on a most extensive trade with America and the West India islands, exporting thence immense quantities of its manufactured goods and pit-coal; and importing from thence all kinds of colonial produce, with which they not only supply the principal parts of Scotland, but

make considerable shipments to the Baltic and Mediterranean. The original manufactures of Glasgow were tartans, or plaids, for the Highlanders, and some coarse linens; but, as it was found that the demand for cotton goods increased, the manufacturers of this city soon afterwards began to employ their workmen in weaving this far more profitable article, which has since become the staple manufacture of the west of Scotland. The linen manufacture, however, has not been wholly abandoned; but the following statement will shew its great inferiority. In 1805 there were exported from hence 24,699,760 yards of cotton goods, and only 3,219,955 yards of linen. Besides these, there are manufactures of glass, earthen-ware, and sadlery, together with an extensive letter-foundry, where the type is cast with great neatness and regularity. Here are several considerable breweries and distilleries. Pit-coal, and other articles required for the establishment of manufactures, are found in abundance in all the surrounding district, on both sides of the Clyde, several of which are worked in the suburbs. The government of Glasgow is vested in a provost, three bailies, &c. who have a similar jurisdiction in this city as in that of Edinburgh. In 1609 the population of Glasgow amounted to no more than from 7 to 8000; fifty years after that period it was from 14 to 15,000; in 1755 it had increased to 27,415; in 1775, to 43,000; in 1795, to 61,954. According to the census in 1802 it was returned as containing 20,276 houses, and 77,385 persons, exclusive of the suburbs of Gorbals, &c. which are now united with it, and together formed a population of 86,880, which has since considerably increased.

3. *Hamilton*, a considerable town, situated at the confluence of the Avon and the Clyde, ten miles from Glasgow. It is irregularly built, but has a neat town-house and prison, together with a commodious market-place. The church stands at the upper end of the town, and is a handsome fabric. A considerable trade is carried on here in the cabinet line, and in the manufacture of shoes. Near the town is the princely residence of the dukes of Hamilton. In 1801 this town contained 642 houses, and 5908 inhabitants.

4. *Rutherglen*, an ancient royal borough, situated about two miles and a half from Glasgow, was formerly of much greater extent than now: it chiefly consists of one principal street, with a few intersecting lanes; the church is a new building erected in 1795. The fairs of this town are much frequented, being famous for the shew of Lanarkshire horses, esteemed the best in Scotland for draught. The town contains 347 houses, and 2437 inhabitants.

PEEBLES-SHIRE,

To the south of Edinburghshire, produces some grain, is particularly fertile in pasturage, well watered with rivers, and contains several lakes. The only town worthy of notice is,

Peebles, a small pleasant place on the Tweed, over which it has a stone bridge of five arches. The town is well built, and the streets modern; the surrounding scenery is truly picturesque and delightful. Here is a small woollen manufactory. This place contains 397 houses, and 2088 inhabitants.

SELKIRKSHIRE,

To the south-east of Peebles, is a hilly county, but yields good pasturage, and abounds with cattle. It was formerly called the Sheriffdom of Etterick Forest, being covered with an extensive wood, stocked with herds of deer kept by the Scottish princes for the chase. The wood is now nearly cut down, and the deer supplanted by numerous flocks of sheep. The only town of consequence is,

Selkirk, a royal burgh, situated on the banks of the Etterick, 36 miles from Edinburgh. It is but poorly built, and has nothing of its former importance. Here were 396 houses, with 2908 inhabitants, in 1801.

ROXBURGHSHIRE,

To the south-east of Selkirkshire, is mountainous to the north and western part of the county; but the east is level and fertile. Agriculture has of late years made rapid improvement in this district; and the county, though formerly much more populous than at present, is swiftly recovering its former consequence. The climate is moist, but salubrious. The chief towns are,

1. *Jedburgh*, a royal borough situated on the banks of the river Jed, 45 miles from Edinburgh. It is a very ancient place, having formerly had a splendid monastery, the chapel to which is now used as the parish-church. The houses are meanly built, intermixed with several of modern erection; and within a few years it has been on the increase in population and improvement. Here were 648 houses, and 3834 inhabitants.

2. *Hawick*, a flourishing town, at the confluence of a small river with the Tiviot. The houses are well built, and the streets spacious, particularly those of modern erection. The town-house is a very neat building; the principal manufactures are those of carpeting, stockings and iccle. In the vicinity of the town are some extensive nursery grounds for fruit and foreign trees. In 1801 here were 1147 houses, and 6536 inhabitants.

3. *Kelso*, a neat town, situated on the banks of the Tiviot and Tweed, 42 miles from Edinburgh. It

It consists of a large square, with six streets branching from it at regular distances. In the square stands the town-house, which is a neat edifice. The parish-church and episcopal chapel are handsome buildings; and here is a fine bridge over the Tweed, erected in 1799. The houses are well built, and the streets spacious. The principal manufactures are those of woollen cloth, and dressing sheep and lamb-skins. In 1805 it was computed that upwards of 20,000 yards of flannel, and 10,000 of linen, of various descriptions, were manufactured here, and that from 70 to 80,000 lambs and sheep-skins were dressed and sent to various markets, together with upwards of 30,000 pair of shoes for exportation. Here is a public dispensary, and good subscription library. This town has often suffered from fire, and is a place of great gaiety, being the seat of the Caledonian hunt, and having annual races in the neighbourhood. In 1801 it contained 524 houses, with 4196 persons.

4. *Melrose*, a considerable town on the north side of the Eldon hills, upon the banks of the Tweed; the houses are well built, and the town is pleasantly situated, and carries on a great trade in coarse linens and woollens. This place was formerly famous for its ancient abbey, the ruins of which indicate it to have been one of the finest in the kingdom, and the admiration of strangers; it was founded by king David, in 1136. In 1801 this town and parish contained 1355 houses, and 6947 inhabitants.

DUMFRIES-SHIRE,

To the south-west of Roxburgh, is divided into three districts, viz. *Ammandale*, *Eskdale*, and *Nithsdale*. This county is very mountainous; the hills are covered with heath, and abound with game. The vallies, however, are fertile, producing good wheat, and all the necessaries of life. The chief towns are,

1. * *Dumfries*, an ancient royal borough, situated on the river Nith, nine miles from its fall into the Solway frith, and 72 from Edinburgh. The principal street is nearly a mile long, in a line with the river, and is in many parts 100 feet wide; besides which there are eight other streets, and many lanes. The houses are handsome, and have a light appearance, rising gradually from the banks of the river. In a square, near the middle of the town, is a handsome Doric pillar, to the memory of the late Duke of Queensbury, who was a great benefactor to the town. The Infirmary is a neat edifice. Dumfries is a place of great resort, being the seat of the commissary court, and a large presbytery synod. The assizes for the county, and also for the stewarty of Kirkcudbright, are held here twice a year. A considerable trade is carried on with the adjacent counties, and also with the north

of England and Ireland, in corn, and the other products of the interior. In 1801 here were, including the parish, 1263 houses, and 7288 inhabitants.

2. * *Annan*, a royal borough, situated on a river of the same name, fifteen miles east of Dumfries. Vessels of 250 tons burthen come within a mile of the town, and those of 60 tons as high as the bridge, which consists of five arches. The town has been considerably increased of late years, from the establishment of a manufactory for carding and spinning wool, and also from the inclosing of a great portion of waste land adjoining the town, so that in 1808, not less than 30,000 bushels of grain were exported. The houses are neat, and the streets tolerably regular. In 1801 it had 464 houses, with 2370 inhabitants.

3. *Sanquhar*, a royal borough, on the river Nith, on the borders of Ayrshire; it consists principally of one long street of decent houses. It has a small manufactory of woollen cloth, and others of stockings and carpets. In 1801 it contained 468 houses, with 2350 inhabitants.

4. *Lochmaben*, a royal borough, seven miles to the north of Dumfries. It was formerly a place of great opulence and trade, but is much gone to decay; of late, however, some extensive manufactories of coarse linen have been established here, for the English markets. It contains 496 houses, and 2053 inhabitants.

KIRKCUDBRIGHTSHIRE,

To the east of Dumfries-shire, towards the north, is nearly one continued heath, producing little but pasture for sheep and black cattle, but on the sea-coasts and vallies it is pleasant and fertile. Of late years agriculture has been greatly improved, and manufactures of cottons and linens have been introduced. The culture of potatoes has, within a few years, been greatly attended to, with much success, and vast quantities are now exported to England. The climate is wet, but tolerably healthy. Its chief towns are,

1. *Kirkcudbright*, a royal borough, and the county-town, is situated on the river Dee, about four miles from its mouth; it consists of two long streets, meeting at right angles, with the buildings in general neat and regular; near the centre is a large and elegant town-house. The harbour is safe and commodious; and there are about 30 vessels belonging to this port. Its principal manufacture is that of cotton, which was established in 1793. This town in 1801 contained 365 houses, and 2380 inhabitants.

2. *New Galloway* a royal borough, near the centre of the county, situated in a delightful vale. The buildings are neat and regular; and though it has little trade, yet its situation renders it a convenient
and

and well-attended market. In 1801 it contained 170 houses, and 778 inhabitants.

Edifices.—It would be useless to enter upon a description of the noble edifices that, within the course of this and the last century, have been erected for private persons in Scotland, because they are so numerous, that to particularize them would not accord with our limits. It is sufficient to say, that many of them are equal to some of the most superb buildings in England and foreign countries; and the reader's surprize at this will cease, when he is informed that the genius of no people is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that there is not any country in Europe, on account of the cheapness of materials, where it can be gratified at so moderate an expence. This may likewise account for the stupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices, which anciently abounded in Scotland; but at the time of the Reformation they were demolished by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in these practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exasperated at the long sufferings they had endured from the popish party.

SECTION II.

Climate and Seasons—Soil—Face of the Country, Agriculture, &c.—Mountains—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Rivers—Lakes—Canals—Forests—Natural Curiosities—Antiquities—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants—Population—Commerce and Manufacture—Religion—Laws—Government, &c. &c.

Climate and Seasons.—THE climate of Scotland is, if possible, still more inconstant than that of England; and though, in general, extremely healthful to the robust mountaineer, it is by no means genial to the valetudinarian. The eastern coast is exposed to the keenness of the east wind, during the greater part of the year; while the western shores, from their vicinity to the Atlantic, are deluged with almost constant rains: the air, however, is more temperate than might be expected in so northerly a climate. This arises partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes, but still more, as in England, from the vicinity of the sea, which affords those warm breezes, that not only soften the natural keenness of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent those epidemic distempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of some high mountains, which are generally covered with snow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year; but

the winter in this country is more remarkable for the abundance of snow which falls, than for the intensity of the frost; while in summer the heat of the sun is reflected with great violence in the narrow vales between the mountains, so as sometimes to occasion the appearance of glittering particles, that seem to swim before the eyes. The spring is very often late and inclement, so as to destroy the fairest prospects of the farmer and the gardener; the harvests are also often late, and corn is not unfrequently seen unhoused in November. In the northern parts day-light at Midsummer lasts upwards of eighteen hours, and the night in the winter is of the same duration.

Soil.—The soil of Scotland is extremely various, and will be best understood by examining that of the different counties, as already described; to which it will be only necessary to add, that in general it is not so fertile as that of England, and in many places less fitted for agriculture than for pasture; yet there are particular plains and vallies of the most luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, incessantly washed down from the mountains, and deposited in these vallies, afford them a vegetative nourishment, which is capable of carrying the strongest plants to perfection; though experience has proved that many vegetables and hortulane productions do not, come so soon to maturity in this country as in England. In some parts, as the Carse of Gowrie, in Perthshire, and most of the southern counties, it vies in fertility with the northern counties of England or Ireland; while on the more northern tracts of Ross, Sutherland, and Argyle, the soil is very little adapted for tillage, and is therefore almost wholly devoted to pasturing large flocks of sheep and herds of black cattle.

Face of the Country, Agriculture, &c.—In the table prefixed at the beginning of our description of this part of Great Britain, we have divided Scotland into three grand divisions. The first, or northern, presents little to the eye, but an assemblage of vast mountains, bordered, however, with vales and level tracts, on the east coast tolerably fertile; the middle division also contains many ranges of mountains; and in both these districts the arable land bears but a small proportion to the mountainous regions, which are of such ruggedness and sterility as nearly to defy the efforts of human industry. The eastern coast of the middle division, and a great part of the southern, is beautifully diversified with every sort of rural variety; having, in many parts, verdant plains watered by copious streams. The face of the whole kingdom is agreeably diversified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The vast inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing

ing to a traveller, and afford those delightful situations for country-houses, of which many of the Scottish nobility and gentry have so judiciously availed themselves.

There is in general little wood, except in the northern parts, where there are still immense forests. Nothing can appear more rugged and wild to the eye of a stranger than the north of Scotland; here the whole country seems composed of blue rock, and dusky mountains heaped upon each other, with their sides embrowned with heath, and their summits covered with snow, which lies unthawed nearly the whole year, or pours down their jagged sides in a thousand torrents and roaring cataracts, falling into gloomy vales or glens, some of which are so deep and narrow as to be altogether impenetrable to the rays of the sun. The entrance into the Highlands from the south-east, near Dunkeld, is peculiarly impressive; there being here a considerable tract of plain extending to what may be called the gates of the mountains.

We can here only enter on a few general observations respecting Scottish agriculture, as an outline has been already presented in our description of the different counties. In the lower districts particularly agriculture has arrived at a great degree of perfection, in consequence of which the country has assumed a new aspect, being highly cultured, and generally inclosed with thorn hedges, instead of the former inclosures of stone dykes. Rich crops of wheat, barley, clover, and turnips, are now raised on fields which a few years ago only afforded a scanty pasturage for sheep; and potatoe crops are now become general and excellent. All those various efforts which, within a few years, have been made by the nobility and gentry of South Britain, with a view to the improvement of different breeds of cattle, the irrigation of the soil, and the reduction of labour, have been here successfully imitated; insomuch that the value of land is prodigiously increased, extensive farms being frequently let at £5 and even £6 per acre. It is even said that some tracts of the Low countries at present exceed in value English estates of the same extent, because they are so far less exhausted and worn out than those of the southern parts of the island; and agriculture is now as well understood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

The fruits of skill and industry are, however, chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly understood, and the farmers, who generally rent from £300 to £500 *per annum*, are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverse, however, may be observed of a very considerable part of Scotland, which still remains

in a state of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real interests, refuse to grant such leases as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In such places the husbandmen barely exist on the gleanings of a scanty farm, seldom exceeding £20 or £30 *per annum*; the cattle are lean and small; the houses mean beyond expression; and the face of the country exhibits the most deplorable marks of poverty and oppression. They consider hedges as useless and cumbersome, and occupying more room than stone inclosures, which are generally no other than low walls, of loose stones, huddled up without lime or mortar, which have a bleak and mean appearance.

Mountains.—The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from east to west, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. The general height of these hills varies from 1400 to 3500 feet above the level of the sea; but Mount Cairngorm in Murrayshire, and Ben-Lomond in Dumbarton, are still higher. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland hills, runs through Lothian, and joins those of Tweeddale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Besides those continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, are sometimes called by the Celtic name *Laws*: many of them are stupendously high, and of beautiful forms, particularly Ben-Fonnish, in Ross-shire, which rises nearly in the form of a rick of hay to the height of 4200 feet from the level of the sea, and ends in a flat summit or plain, three miles long, and about half a mile in width. Ben-Nevis, near Fort William, is the highest mountain in the island, being 4350 feet high; its summit is covered with snow all the year.

Animals.—The zoology of Scotland, as distinguished from that of England, offers little remarkable to the eye of the naturalist. In the northern counties, and in Galloway to the south, there is a breed of small horses, like the Welch ponies, called *shelties*, which are extremely hardy, but obstinate and skittish. The numbers of small black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland, towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweeddale, and other parts of the south, are almost incredible, and bring large sums into the country; the black cattle especially, which, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef. Goats are not near so common in the Highlands of Scotland as in most other mountainous tracts; and swine are very little cultivated, pork not being a favourite food among the inhabitants of North Britain.

This country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domestic animals, that are not common in other northern parts. The red deer and roe-buck are found in the Highlands; but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; and the wild cat is occasionally observed. Seals and porpoises are frequent on the coast.

Of the native birds, the black cock and the grouse are the most remarkable. Eagles are often seen on the rocky cliffs, and elegant falcons in the remaining forests. The shores and islands present numerous sea-fowl; and the isle of Bass is proverbially the haunt of the solan goose. The golden-crested wren is sometimes seen in the most northern parts of the country; but the nightingale has never yet been heard north of the Tweed.

The fish on the coast of Scotland are various and plentiful; and the Scotch have improved in their fisheries as much as in their manufactures and agriculture; for societies have been formed, which have carried this branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in this country, exceeding the Dutch themselves in curing as well as catching their fish. In former times they seldom ventured to fish above a league's distance from the land; but they now ply in the deepest waters as boldly and successfully as any of their neighbours. Their salmon, which they can send more early, when prepared, to the Levant and southern markets, than the English and Irish, are of great service, as the returns are generally made in specie, or beneficial commodities. The other principal kinds are herrings, haddocks, turbot, and lobsters. Oysters are plentiful, but they are not so delicate as on the southern shores of the island. Mackarel, whittings, and smelts, are uncommon; and sprats are scarcely known. The whale sometimes appears on the northern coast, and the basking shark in the western inlets. The lakes abound with trout, perch, and other fresh-water fish.

Vegetables.—The vegetable productions of Scotland, considered in general, differ little from those of England, though it must be remarked that the more southern counties of England contain many plants that are either unknown or very rarely met with in Scotland; while, on the other hand, the snowy summits of the Grampians, and the bleak unsheltered rocks of the Hebrides, possess many hardy vegetables not to be met with in the southern parts of the island. It would be an uninteresting task to us and our readers to enumerate particulars; but it may be necessary to remark, that the soil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, beans, peas, potatoes, turnips, hemp, flax, hay, cabbages, and most other culinary and esculent plants; but it is by no means remarkable for abundance of fruit. Gooseberries, strawberries, and raspberries,

do indeed ripen nearly as well as in England; and apples, pears, and some species of wall-fruit, as Orleans plums and apricots, are not uncommon; but peaches, nectarines, and grapes, are scarcely seen in the open air; and in the best gardens we have not observed the walnut, the mulberry, or the fig: even the currants, except in particularly warm summers, seldom attain that degree of ripeness, that can fit them for use as a dessert but are employed almost entirely for jellies and wines. The chief fruit districts are those on the banks of the Clyde.

Minerals.—Though Scotland does not at present boast of gold mines, yet it is certain that it contains such; or, at least, that Scotland formerly afforded a considerable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father, contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor; and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were presented to the guests by way of dessert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, in the minority of his grandson, drove those foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which since that time have never been resumed. Some small pieces of gold have been found in those parts, washed down by the floods. It likewise appears by the public records, that those beautiful coins, struck by James V. called *bonnet-pieces*, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the same metal.

Several proprietors in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are said to be very rich, and to produce considerable quantities of silver, particularly those of Lead-hills in Lanarkshire, Strontian, and Islay. Some copper has been found in several places; and of late a very rich mine of antimony has been opened at West-kirk, in Dumfriesshire. Many parts of Scotland, in the east, west, and southern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vast emolument of the public. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places in the north of Scotland, where no coal has yet been found, prevented them from supplying that defect by plantations of wood; and the peat-mosses being in many parts almost exhausted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel; however, the taste for plantations of all kinds that now prevails will soon remedy that inconvenience.

No country produces a greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to reap the profits, in their foundries, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactories.

The other metallic substances are cobalt, bismuth, manganese, &c. Lime-stone, free-stone, and slate, abound in every district, and many of the marbles are nearly equal in polish and colour to those of Italy. Pearls are found on the great horse-muscle, a native of the northern rivers. The sapphire is found in different places of several shades, from a deep red to a transparent white, and nearly of equal hardness with the oriental. The topaz is found in the Highland mountains, and the ruby and hyacinth mixed with the sand on the sea-shore. At Portsoy is found that singular kind of granite called Moses' Tables, which when polished, the marble resembles the Hebrew characters on a white ground: besides these, there are many curious and rare fossils. Among the districts of metallic ores, there are many springs of mineral impregnation; and the chalybeate waters are very numerous, as at Moffat, Peterhead, and Pithcailley; and St. Barnard's Well, near Edinburgh, and another, near Moffat, are sulphurous.

Rivers.—The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in the southern part of Perthshire, near Callendar, and passing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself, near Edinburgh, into that arm of the German sea, to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Next to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Perthshire; after running south-east, it passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and, running from south-west to north-east, falls into the sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west and east, and disembody themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanarkshire, and, after many beautiful serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde, a large river on the west of Scotland, has its rise in Annandale, runs north-west through the valley of that name, and, after passing by Lanark, Hamilton, the city of Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Besides these capital rivers, Scotland contains several others well provided with salmon, trout, and other fish: some of these have the name of *Eske*, which is the old Celtic word for *water*.

Lakes, &c.—Scotland abounds with lakes, or, as they are there called, *Lochs*. That of Ness, in Inverness-shire, is a beautiful expansion of water, 22 miles long, 2 broad, and from 60 to 135 fathom deep, even at its sides, so that a ship of the line might sail within her length of the shore from end to end. The water is esteemed very salubrious, never freezing in the coldest weather, and is covered

with a thick hoar or mist, resembling smoke, in frosty weather. Loch Lomond, in Dumbartonshire, is the finest lake in Great Britain; it is about 30 miles long, and in some places 9 broad, containing an area of 20,000 acres. There are several islands scattered over it; some of which are of considerable size, highly cultivated, and well inhabited; while others are represented as floating from one situation to another, the surface being hard, the soil closely united, and containing several large trees. The whole scenery of this lake and its islands is highly delightful. Loch Leven, in the shires of Fife and Kinross, is about 12 miles in circumference, and contains four islands, on one of which stands Leven castle, the place of confinement of the unfortunate queen Mary. These lakes, together with many others, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. The Scotch sometimes give the name of Loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long, and 4 broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of swans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights. Near Loch Ness is a hill almost two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes, while, but 17 miles from thence, the Lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives its name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine descendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preserve themselves independent on and unmixed with the Lowlanders.

Besides these rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coasts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, navigable bays, or arms of the sea; as the Bay of Glenluce, and Wigtown Bay. Sometimes they are called Friths; as the Solway Frith, which separates Scotland from England on the west; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and those of Cromarty and Dornoch.

Canals.—The greatest improvement for inland navigation that has been completed in this part of Great Britain was undertaken, at a very considerable expence, by a society of public spirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde, by which a communication has been opened between the east and west seas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom. This great work was first projected in 1722, but nothing was attempted till 1761, when a subscription being opened, it was begun under Mr. Smeaton in 1768, and finished in 1790, when, on the 28th of July, a hog'shead of the wa-

ter of the Forth was poured into the Clyde, as a symbol of their junction. The course of this canal, through moss, quicksands, gravel, and rocks, over precipices, and through vallies, at first presented wonderful difficulties. It has 18 draw-bridges, and 15 principal aqueduct bridges, besides smaller ones and tunnels. In the first three miles there are only six locks; but in the fourth there are not less than ten, and a very fine aqueduct bridge over the great road to the west of Falkirk. In the next six miles there are only four locks to the summit; it then passes eighteen miles on a level, and afterwards descends by nineteen other locks into the Clyde. It is carried over 36 rivers and rivulets, and two great roads, extending in its whole length 35 miles. For the most part it is banked about 20 feet high, and the water is 16 feet deep. Near Kirkintilloch it passes the Logie water by a fine bridge of 90 feet; and that over the Helvin is one of the noblest pieces of architecture in the world; it consists of four arches, and carries the canal over a valley, 65 feet high, and 420 feet long. This canal cost £200,000. The bridges are all of hewn stone, of beautiful architecture; and the whole may be better conceived than described. Other canals are projecting and executing in Scotland, particularly that, now nearly constructed, called the Caledonian canal, which is intended to open a communication between the western sea and the Murray frith, through Loch Linney, Loch Lochy, and Loch Ness. This great undertaking is executing on an extensive scale; so that the largest merchantmen, or even frigates, will be not only enabled by this medium to avoid the dangerous navigation of Pentland frith, but save a circuitous distance of upwards of 300 miles; and that, it is said, without the assistance of a single lock. The benefits likely to result from this great national undertaking are incalculable: a very few years, no doubt, will present the rude interior of Inverness-shire with a quite different aspect; and the timber in that and the adjacent counties, which has for ages been considered not worth the cutting, on account of its distance from water carriage, will now be easily converted into specie, to the no small emolument of the proprietors.

Forests.—The appearance of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepest mosses, or morasses, contain large logs of wood: and their waters being impregnated with turpentine, have a preserving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been discovered in those mosses. The *Sylva Caledonia*, or Caledonian Forest, the remains of which are now thought to be Ettrick wood, in the south of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of wild boars; but such an animal is not now

to be seen in Scotland. Owing to the want of attention to the planting of trees, several extensive tracts have been remarked as being extremely bare of timber, particularly on the eastern coast, which is by far the best cultivated. Several woods, however, are yet in the western and northern districts; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the use of furnaces and foundries; but lying at a great distance from water carriage, though the works succeeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach twenty or thirty miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors. In a few years, however, that general deficiency of timber so much complained of by southern travellers will be abundantly supplied, as many proprietors are now covering their waste lands with extensive forests: one nobleman, the earl of Murray, from 1767 to 1807, planted upwards of 13,000,000 of trees, of which 1,500,000 are oak.

Natural Curiosities.—Many singular curiosities are to be met with in North Britain. Among these, the beautiful falls of the Clyde, and the insulated rock of Bass, are deserving of notice. In the isle of Arran is an immense cavern, hollowed in the side of a rock; and near Colvend, in Dumfries-shire, are several remarkable caves. In the parish of Gaivrie, in Banffshire, are three remarkable curiosities: a perpendicular rock, of very great extent, full of shells; which are possessed by myriads of birds; a cave, or rather den, called *Hell's Chimney*, 50 feet deep, 60 long, and 40 broad; having a subterraneous passage to the sea, about 240 feet long, through which the waves are driven with great violence in stormy weather, so as to occasion smoke to arise from the pit; and another subterraneous passage, through a peninsula, from sea to sea, nearly 450 feet long, and so narrow that a man can with difficulty creep through it. At one end of this passage is a cave, about 20 feet high, 30 broad, and 150 long, supported by immense columns of rock.

The traces of ancient volcanos are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finhaven is one instance, and the hill of Bergonium is another; yielding vast quantities of pumices, or scoræ of different kinds, many of which are of the same species with those of the Icelandic volcanos. Among other natural curiosities of this country mention is made of a heap of white stones, most of them clear, like crystal, together with great plenty of oyster and other sea-shells; they are found on the top of a mountain, called *Scórna Lappich*, in Ross-shire,

20 miles distant from the sea. Slains, in Aberdeenshire, is said to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping Cave, where water oozing through a spongy porous rock at the top, quickly consolidates after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curiosities belonging to Scotland have their descriptions and histories; but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vanish when they are skilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeshire, and are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimensions, and have been the scene of inhuman cruelties.

Antiquities.—The monuments of antiquity may be considered under three heads, as they belong to the Celtic, the Roman, or the Scoto-Irish periods. Of the former very few monuments now remain, and they are chiefly of the tumular kinds, consisting either of circles of stones, the evident remains of Druidical worship; or the vestiges of hill-forts, which appear to have been employed by the Caledonians as places of defence. Of these hill-forts the most remarkable is that at Barrowhill at Aberdeenshire.

Some remarkable remains of Druidical antiquity occur in the parish of Kirkmichael, in Perthshire, where there is an immense rocking stone, standing on a flat-topped eminence, in the vicinity of a large body of Druidical remains. Opposite to the manse of Dron, in the same county, there is another large rocking-stone, 10 feet long, and 7 broad; and in the stewarty of Kirkcudbright is a stone of similar description, called the Logan stone, which from its size appears to be eight or ten tons in weight, and is so nicely balanced on two or three protuberances, that even the pressure of the finger produces a rocking motion from one side to the other.

The Roman and other antiquities found in Scotland have furnished matter for large volumes. The stations of the Roman legions, their castella, their prætentures, or walls reaching across the island, have been traced with great precision by antiquaries and historians; so that, without some new discoveries, an account of them could not afford instruction to the learned, and but little amusement to the ignorant, because, at present, they can be discovered only by critical eyes. The course of the Roman wall (or, as it is called by the country people, *Graham's Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottish warrior of that name first broke over it), between the Clyde and Forth, which was first marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is still discernible, as are several Roman camps in the neighbourhood.

By the western extremity of this wall, at Duntocher, in Dumbartonshire, a countryman, in digging a trench on the declivity of a hill upon which

are seen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up several uncommon tiles; which exciting the curiosity of the peasantry of that neighbourhood, it was not long before they broke in upon an entire subterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart-load of these materials. The tiles are of seven different sizes; the smallest being seven, and the largest twenty-one inches square. They are from two to three inches in thickness, of a reddish colour, and in a perfectly sound condition. The lesser ones composed several rows of pillars, which formed a labyrinth of passages about eighteen inches square; and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, served as a roof to support the earth above, which was found to be two feet in depth. The building is surrounded by a subterraneous wall of hewn stone. The bones and teeth of animals, with a sooty kind of earth, were found in the passages; from which some have conjectured this building to have been occupied as a hot-bed for the use of the neighbouring garrison. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a striking remain of Roman antiquity. It is situated at Ardoch, in Perthshire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the dreadful battle recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated.

The coins, urns, utensils, inscriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland, are innumerable. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the southern parts.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very striking; and many parts of that fine building have still the remains of much grandeur and dignity in them. The west door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice displays very elaborate workmanship. There are many other ruins of noble edifices, which are highly interesting to the antiquary.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient Scots themselves are not only curious but instructive, as they regard many important events of their history. It would, however, be unpardonable, if we should neglect to mention the stone near the town of Forres, or Fortrose, which far surpasses all the other in magnificence and grandeur; "and is," says Mr. Gordon, "perhaps one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height above ground, and is not less than 12 or 15 feet below; so that the whole height is at least 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one single and entire stone; great variety of figures in relieve are carved thereon, and some of them still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally

rally looked upon as Danish, there is little doubt of its being Scotch; and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulsion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their last settlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invasion.

Manners, Customs, &c.—"The Scotch," says Dr. Playfair, "are commonly divided into two classes, viz. the Highlanders and the Lowlanders; the former occupying the northern and mountainous provinces, the latter the southern districts. These classes differ from each other in language, manners, and dress." The following observations of a recent traveller through the former of these regions will, no doubt, be found entertaining, and at the same time fully illustrative of this part of our work.

"The Highlanders are a brave, hardy race of people; their customs and manner of living, in many respects, were entirely new to us. Their dress is elegant and striking: a plaid of narrow stuff, chequered with various colours, is wrapped in many folds round the body, fastened before and on the shoulders with a silver buckle, if the owner is able to purchase one. The philibeg, or kilt, is a full, short petticoat, reaching only to the knees, made of the same material; and the stockings, which are likewise chequered with different colours, are short, and tied below the knee. As they have no pockets, most of them wear a great pouch, made of badger skin, with tassels dangling before, which serves to hold their money and tobacco. Their head is covered with a blue bonnet, bordered with red, blue, and green intermingled; and they generally carry a poignard, which they call a dirk, in their girdle. Married women are distinguished by a piece of white linen, called a *kirch*, pinned over the forehead, and falling down over the neck behind; single ones bind a ribbon round their heads; but all wear a plaid, thrown gracefully over their shoulders, instead of a cloak.

"The houses of the peasants are miserable huts, mostly formed of loose stones laid one upon another, without any other floor than the naked ground; the roof is made with rafters, covered with heath instead of thatch; windows are seldom to be seen; the light enters at the door, and through the hole which is left in the roof for a passage to the smoke. Some of these hovels have several apartments, and the owners of them often possess a flock of goats and sheep.

"Most of the houses in Scotland are built with stone, whether large or small; and the side of them, instead of the front, often faces the street; their entrance is frequently by a flight of steps, which reaches to the second story, so that there is no way to the ground floor but by going down stairs within the house. The common people, as well as the gentry, have a sort of natural politeness

and kindness to strangers that is very endearing.

"They are fond of war, have high courage, and a martial air. Formerly they were divided into clans, that is, families; for every branch of the same stock, however distant, belonged to the clan whose name he bore: these clans had always a head or chief, who protected them, and led them out to battle against the neighbouring chiefs, when there was any cause of offence between them.

"The people have generally a religious turn, and attend the kirk very regularly, though it should be several miles from their houses: I have often seen the women, on Sundays, walking to kirk barefoot, with their shoes and stockings under their arm, which they do not put on till they get near the kirk door. The lower orders are excessively superstitious, and have some strange customs. Some of them pretend to be endued with the gift of seeing events long before they happen, which they call second sight; but this is an idle notion, arising from prejudice and early superstition. On the first of May, they perform a ceremony something like the rural sacrifices of the Pagans. After having cut a square trench on the ground, leaving a piece of turf in the middle, on which they light a fire, they boil a kettle of milk, mixed with eggs, butter, and oatmeal; when sufficiently boiled, they spill some of it on the ground, as an offering to some imaginary being, whom they believe either protects or destroys their cattle. Then every one of the company takes a cake of oatmeal, with nine square knobs raised on each, and turning his face to the fire, breaks off a knob, which he flings over his shoulder, crying out at the same time, 'This I give to thee,' naming whom he invokes; 'preserve thou my horses, oxen, or sheep.' Sometimes they give a knob to the eagle or fox, entreating them to spare their lambs and poultry.

"When a Highlander dies, the body is stretched on a board, and covered with coarse linen; a wooden platter, filled with salt and earth, is placed upon the breast: the salt they consider as an emblem of the immortal soul; the earth, of the body which is going to decay. The friends and relations assemble every evening, till the dead man is buried, at his house, where they bewail his loss with bagpipes and fiddles, singing, dancing, and drinking, more like a merry-making than a time of mourning. We were present at the funeral of a young woman, who had caught the small-pox in nursing her husband. She was followed by a long train of mourners, who sang a sort of funeral dirge, in praise of her virtues, as we were told; for we could not understand it, as it was in Erse. The notes were the most melancholy imaginable, resembling a howl rather than a song of lamentation.

tion: The Erse language was formerly spoken all over Scotland, but is now pretty much confined to the common people in the Highlands.

"The bagpipe is a sort of national music, that is met with every where; and they take pleasure in old songs, that commemorate the heroic actions of their warlike chiefs. Besides ruined castles, of which we have seen a great number, there are many remains of ancient buildings that some suppose were the temples of the Druids, whilst others believe them to have belonged to the Danes. We saw several of them in Inverness-shire: they are circular, and tapering like a glass-house; there are galleries quite round the inside, that are connected by staircases up to the top, which are open. They are built of stone, without lime or mortar of any kind. Near Cullen, we examined several cairns, or barrows, the tombs of ancient warriors, whose names and heroic deeds are entirely forgotten. In the middle of one of these heaps of stones was lately found a coffin, made of long flat stones, containing the skeleton of a man and a deer's horn, to show that the owner of this tomb loved hunting.

"The breakfast table, where we have been entertained, has always been spread with such variety, that I do not know how we shall submit to a mere English breakfast. It is common to furnish that meal with tea, coffee, eggs, dried herrings, cheese, hung beef, marmalade, currant jelly, and conserve of myrtle, a wild fruit that grows among the heath; besides whisky and rum, for which you may believe we have no relish.

"All the little towns on the eastern coast, since we crossed the Murray Frith, are employed in making thread and linen cloth, chiefly for their own clothing: the business of the opposite coast, towards the west, is the herring fishery. We are told that these fish arrive about July, in such vast shoals, that, in some seasons, the beach for miles, at low water, has been covered by those left by the tide. I regret that we cannot see them approach the shore, gliding with their silver backs on the surface of the water, and followed by innumerable sea-fowls of different kinds, which prey upon them without ceremony."

An intelligent reader may easily perceive that the ridiculous family-pride, which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguished in Scotland, was owing to the feudal institutions which prevailed there in all the horrors of blood and barbarity. The family differences, especially of the Highlanders, familiarized them to blood and slaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a subject for triumph. These passions did not prevail in the breasts of the common people only; for they were authorized and cherished by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had seen the world, were

conversant in the courts of Europe, versed in polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and social life. Their kings, excepting some of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were considered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war; for in time of peace their civil authority was so little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the most civilized parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as its sovereign. These prejudices were confirmed even by the laws, which gave those petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own estates; and they generally executed their hasty sentences in twenty-four hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which those chieftains had of outvying each other in the number of their followers created perpetual animosities, which seldom or never ended without bloodshed; so that the common people, whose best qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their chieftain, and the aggrandizement of his name, lived in a state of continual hostility. Archibald the Great, duke of Argyle, was the first chieftain we have heard of who had the patriotism to attempt to reform his dependents, and to banish from them those barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and has tended to reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of life.

The state of society in the Highlands has been greatly ameliorated since the rebellions of 1715 and 1745. The Roman dress, and the use of arms, were prohibited by government; roads, constructed at vast expence, opened an easy communication with the Low country; and the courts of the barons were suppressed by the jurisdiction act. The heads of clans have now ceased to be petty monarchs, and the services of their vassals are now no longer requisite for their defence or aggrandizement. Divested of their legal authority, they now seek to preserve their influence by wealth: with this view their attention is turned to the improvement of their estates. Their ancient mode of living is also entirely altered; and the Highland gentleman differs little from one of a like fortune in the southern counties. A spirit of industry has also been excited among the tenants; while, in many places, arts and manufactures are establishing.

The manners, customs, and habits of the gentry in the Lowlands, in a great measure, resemble those of their British neighbours; they are in general extremely well informed, polite, and hospitable: neither is learning wholly confined to them; the lower ranks are taught to read, write, and cast accounts, and often the Latin language.

The Scots, even of the meanest order, are very careful to instruct their children early in religion. It is common to see the cottagers at their doors

on a fine evening, employed with their spinning-wheels; whilst a little child, leaning on its mother's knee, repeats its catechism, or some verses out of the Bible, to which she listens without interrupting her work.

The men are generally tall and well made; and the women fair, with golden locks. The gentlemen and ladies, in great towns, dress like the English; but the women of lower rank often wear jackets and plaid petticoats; and most of the poor people wear neither stocking nor shoe, unless when they put on their holiday garb. There is a sort of honest pride in the poor Scot, that disdains to beg or receive alms, except he is driven to it by the strongest necessity. The poor are not supported by a poor's rate, as they are in England; but a contribution is made for them every Sunday after church, when each person gives according to his inclination and circumstances.

Their dress differs little or nothing from the English; but many of the peasantry still retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear.

The ancient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry are as far from being applicable to the present time, as the forms of a Roman senate are to those of a popish conclave; and not any nation ever underwent so quick and so sudden a transition of manners.

The peasantry have their peculiarities: their ideas are confined: but not any people can form their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their superiors, and live within the bounds of the most rigid economy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions: and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at present in Scotland. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprise; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity, and resolution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary.

They affect a fondness for the memory and language of their forefathers, beyond perhaps any people in the world; but this attachment is seldom or ever carried into any thing that is indecent or disgusting, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of ancient Scotch dishes, such as the *haggis*, the *sheep's head singed*, the *fish in sauce*, the *chicken broth*, *hotchpotch*, *cockie teekie*, and *minced collops*. These dishes, in their original dressing, were savoury and nutritive, for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery, have rendered them agreeable to the most delicate palate.

In the luxuries of the table, indeed, the superior classes equal the English, and are as much addicted to conviviality as their fellow-subjects in South Britain.

Within these few years the use of pottage and bread made of oatmeal is almost disused among the commonalty of the more populous districts; and tea, wheaten bread, and animal food are as frequent on the north as on the south of the Tweed.

The lower people in Scotland are not so much accustomed as the English are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reason they seem to enjoy them more completely.

Dancing is a favourite amusement in this country; but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness: the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. The natives are expert at all the other diversions common in England, *cricket* excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen considering it as too athletic and mechanical. There are, however, two games that may be considered as peculiar to the Scotch; these are *golf* and *curling*. The former has been practised generally in Scotland for several hundred years, and is performed by several persons together, who are divided into two parties, each of whom endeavours to strike the golf-ball towards the goal from the centre of a large plain. The diversion of curling, which is almost unknown in every other country, is adapted only to frosty weather, and is played on the ice, by sliding from one mark to another large stones of from 40 to 70 lbs. weight, of an hemispherical shape, very smooth on the flat side, and furnished with an iron and wooden handle at top. The great object of the player is to lay his stone as near to the mark as possible; to guard that of his partner, which had before been placed in a good position; or to strike off that of his antagonist. To attain these ends much skill and dexterity are required; and the great art of the game is to make the stones bend in towards the mark, when this is so blocked up by other stones that they cannot reach it by being directed in a straight line.

The inhabitants of most part of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is approved by all judges of nature.

The common people in the Lowlands retain the solemn decent manner of their ancestors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the beadle is sent round with a passing-bell; but he stops at certain places, and with a slow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceased, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow-countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceased was beloved in the place, vast numbers attend.

attend. The procession is sometimes preceded by the magistrates and their officers, and the body is carried in a coffin covered by a velvet-pall, with chair-poles to the grave, where it is interred, without any oration or address to the people, or prayers, or farther ceremony than the nearest relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the same manner as in England, but without any funeral service.

The Union, which for upwards of a century has incorporated the two nations of England and Scotland, has rendered them one people; and the distinctions that had subsisted for many ages are gradually wearing away. Peculiarities disappear; similar manners prevail in both parts of the island; the same authors are read and admired; the same entertainments are frequented by the elegant and polite; and the same standard of taste and language is established throughout the British empire.

Population.—In the tabular view of the counties of Scotland we have noted the population of each county, as returned to Dr. Webster in 1755, as published by Sir John Sinclair in his statistical account of this kingdom between 1791 and 1798, and according to the return under the population act in 1801. From the best accounts which we can collect, it may be inferred, that, 2 or 300 years ago, North Britain was much more populous than at the period of the Union, when its inhabitants were estimated at 1,000,000; from which era to the present time they have rapidly increased. The total return in 1755 was 1,265,000 persons; in 1791 they were increased to 1,526,000; in 1798 to 1,526,592; and according to the return in 1801 they were 1,599,068 persons, viz. 734,581 males, and 864,487 females, of whom 293,373 were returned as being employed in trade, manufacture, or handicraft, and 365,516 in agriculture; to which if we add 8692, the estimated number of persons in the parishes from whence no returns were received, the total amount will be 1,607,760 souls.

Language.—It is well known that there prevail in Scotland two languages that are extremely different in their nature and origin. The Erse, or Gaelic, spoken in the Highlands and western isles, and the Lowland Scotch spoken in the remaining parts of the country. The Paternoster of the Gaelic is as follows:

A n' Athair ata air Neamh. Gu naamhaichear t-Tinn. Tigeadh do Rìoghachd. Deanthar do Thoil air an Talamh mar a neithear air Neamh. Tabhair dhuinn an diu ar n-Aran laitheil. Agus maith dhuinn ar Fiacha amhuil mar mbaitmid d'ar luohd-fia chaibh. Agus na leig am buaireadh sinn. Ach saor sinn o ole. Amen.

In the ancient, or Lowland Scotch, it ran as follows:

Uor fader quhillk beest i Heven. Hallowit weird thyne nam. Cum thyne kingrik. Be dune thyne woll as it is i Heven eva po yerd. Uor dellic breid gif us thisk day. And forleit us uor skaths as we forleit tham quha skath us. And leed us na intil temtation. But an fre us fra evil. Amen.

It is very generally believed, and almost taken for granted, that the language spoken in the Highlands originally prevailed throughout the kingdom. We find this opinion confirmed by Dr. Chalmers, the learned author of the popular and recent work, "Caledonia," who contends that, previous to the establishment of a Saxon monarch on the throne of Scotland, in the person of Edgar, son of Malcolm Canmore, no other language but Gaelic was spoken in North Britain, except in the Lothians, which was then considered an English settlement. He further declares that the oldest document which he has met with in the Scottish language is a contract with the magistrates of Edinburgh, in 1387; from which it is probable that the Lowland Scotch was a corruption of the Anglo-Saxon spoken by their southern neighbours.

Literature.—Scottish literature cannot be traced to an early period. In the middle ages it consisted, like that of other countries, in little more than meagre chronicles, composed by ill-informed and credulous monks. Indeed, according to Pinkerton, the country that produced Buchanan in the 16th century, could not in the 12th boast a single native writer. It first began to dawn in the 13th century, when Scotland, filled with a barbarous Scandinavian colony, cannot be compared with respect to literature to the southern part of the island. It must not, however, be forgotten, that in the sacred ground of Iona flourished several respectable Scoto-Irish writers, such as the biographers of Columba, Cumencus, and Adamnan, the latter the friend of the English historian Bede; and St. Patrick, the apostle of Ireland.

The earliest fragment of Scottish literature is the *Chronicon Pictorum*, supposed to have been written by some Irish priest in the beginning of the 11th century. In the 12th century there are some fragments, by different persons, in the register of St. Andrews. Toward the end of the 13th century appeared some writers of considerable estimation, particularly Michael Scot, who published voluminous commentaries on the works of Aristotle; and John Scot of Dunse, or Duns Scotus, a consummate metaphysician and voluminous writer. In the 14th century lived John of Fordoun, the author of *Scoto-Chronicon*, a work of considerable merit; and John Barbour, archdeacon of Aberdeen, who wrote a poem on the actions of Robert I. which is no mean monument of the industry and talents of that age. King James I. who flourished in the beginning of the 15th century, may be ranked as the next Scottish writer of eminence; he was a learned and accomplished

complished prince, and was the author of some excellent poems. In the 16th century we may notice Elphinstone, bishop of Aberdeen, who composed the *Scoticorum Chronicum*, and was distinguished both for learning and piety; Dunbar, the chief of the ancient Scottish poets; Gaven Douglas, bishop of Dunkeld, who published an excellent translation of Virgil; David Lindsey, of the mount; John Knox, the principal instrument in the reformation; and the admirable Crichton must not be forgotten, though the usual accounts that have been given of his accomplishments are strongly tinged with fable and romance. At the latter end of the same period, flourished the classical Buchanan, an elegant historian and Latin poet; and John Leslie, bishop of Ross, the author of many esteemed works, who was versed in theology and philosophy, in the civil and canon law, and was besides an able statesman. The learned archbishop Spotiswood published a judicious ecclesiastical history of Scotland: and the natural history was illustrated by Sir Andrew Balfour and Sir Robert Sibbald, two of its greatest ornaments. The discovery of logarithms, in the beginning of the 17th century, is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston; and since his time mathematical science has been cultivated in Scotland with singular success. The works of Keil, Gregory, MacLaurin, Simson, Stewart, Robinson, &c. are universally read and admired. During the 18th century this country produced other eminent writers in various departments of science: among the Scotch divines and philosophers we may particularize Blair, Campbell, Hutcheson, Lechman, and Macknight; among the statesmen and lawyers, Sir George Mackenzie, Lord Stair, Sir Thomas Cray, and Lord Kaimes; among the historians, Hume, Robertson, Henry, Lord Hales, and Ferguson; among the political and moral writers, Reid, Lord Monboddo, and Beattie; among the physicians and surgeons, Bell, Black, Cullen, Hunter, Monro, Smellie, and Hutton; and among the Scottish poets, Blair, Burns, Home, Ramsay, Thomson, and Wilkie: the names now mentioned may be sufficient to show that Scotland has produced able writers in almost every branch of science.

Within the last twenty years the progress of Scottish literature has perhaps been greater than at any former period. During that interval, booksellers' shops have been established, where formerly there was scarcely a book-stall; and there are now few towns that do not possess a printing-press; the increase of newspapers and other periodical publications is very great.

Arts and Sciences.—The progress of the arts in this country, has of late not fallen a whit short of other improvements. Skilful workmen in the me-

chanic arts, especially in those of joinery and cabinet making, are numerous in the large towns; and even musical instruments of considerable celebrity are fabricated at Edinburgh. The liberal arts of painting and engraving have been carried to great perfection; and both these and the art of printing are exercised in a manner and style no way inferior to that of England. The numerous public and private buildings in Edinburgh, Glasgow, &c. bear ample testimony to the abilities of Scottish architects.

Universities.—There are in Scotland four universities, viz. those of St. Andrews, Aberdeen, Glasgow, and Edinburgh. That of St. Andrew's was founded in 1411, by Bishop Wardlaw, and formerly consisted of three colleges; viz. St. Salvadore's, a handsome building with a court and quadrangle, on one side was the church, on another the library, a third contained apartments for the students, and the fourth was left unfinished; St. Leonard's college is now converted into private houses; and St. Mary's, or, as it is now called, New College. This university is governed by a chancellor elected by the two principals and professors. The students are said not to exceed 100. The university of Aberdeen consists of two colleges, one of which is situated in the old town, and was founded by bishop Elphinstone, lord chancellor to James IV. in 1494, and hence called King's College: this, together with the Mareschal College of the new town, form one university, which is called King Charles's university. The Mareschal College was founded by George Keith, earl mareschal of Scotland, in 1580. The two colleges seldom contain less than 1000 students. The university of Glasgow was founded by bishop Turnbull, in 1450; but the Reformation in 1560 almost annihilated it, and most of its members were dispersed. Chancellor Benton carried all the charters, &c. to France, and deposited them in the Scotch college at Paris. The college consists of but one edifice, which is a venerable structure, and generally contains about 5 or 600 students. The university of Edinburgh, of most recent origin (being founded by James VI. in 1680), is now in the highest estimation, from the numerous departments of science and literature there taught, and the general ability of its professors. This institution consists of a principal, three professors of theology, four of law, eight of medicine, and one of agriculture and rural affairs lately established. The number of students are now considerably upwards of 1000. The old building being extremely mean and unfit for the accommodation of the various students, a subscription of £30,000 was raised for the erection of a magnificent edifice, equal to the improved state of the capital of the kingdom. The first stone was laid, with great solemnity, in 1789; but after the committee had expended

pended the sum raised, in finishing the north, and part of the east front, the plan was relinquished for want of sufficient means. This elegant structure was intended to have been extended 358 feet north and south, and 255 east and west; in which it was meant to have apartments for the principals and eight of the professors; but the whole is not yet completed, though in a great state of forwardness. The large and commodious anatomical theatre is finished.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The inhabitants of North Britain can scarcely be regarded as a commercial people before the end of the 11th century, when the accession of Edgar, by placing a line of Saxon monarchs on the Scottish throne, introduced into that country the spirit of trade and commerce, which at an early period distinguished the natives of South Britain. The chief seats of trade have in all ages been the towns; but Celtic Scotland had neither towns nor cities, till the erection of castles and monasteries, subsequent to the 11th century, produced the formation of villages under their walls. These villages in time became towns, from the settlement of the English and Anglo-Normans in them, during the 12th century; and from that time we may date the commencement of Scottish commerce; for about this period they manufactured their flax into linen, and their hides into leather. They also wrought the wool of their flocks into coarse cloth; and these woollen fabrics were regulated by a particular assize during the reign of David I. The first great traders in Scotland appear to have been the heads of monasteries, as they alone at once possessed the spirit of commercial enterprise, and a sufficient capital to engage in promising speculations; to them belonged the principal ships; they had at first the exclusive privilege of fishing; and they were the chief bankers of those times. After the numerous conflicts and revolutions which disturbed the peace of Scotland previous to its union with England, its manufactures were not, probably, in a much better state of improvement at that epoch than heretofore: they had been partially improved, but seem never to have advanced beyond the domestic supply; of course the commerce of North Britain could never have been very extensive. Since the Union the industry and manufactures of Scotland have been assiduously cultivated; and the attempts at national improvements and commercial advancements have in the result proved eminently successful. The establishment of the Royal Bank, and the Society for the Improvement of Agriculture, in the reign of George I. and the subsequent formation of a Board of Trustees for improving the manufactures, trade, and fisheries of North Britain, have been the means of adding greatly to the riches and prosperity of the king-

dom. Since the Union the country has shared in the national prosperity: towards the middle of the last century, manufactures began to flourish, and trade increased in due proportion. Without troubling the reader with a detail on this subject, it may be sufficient to observe, that about twenty years ago manufactures in many places were carried on to a great extent. Cotton cloths alone employed, within 20 miles circuit of the city of Glasgow, 15,000 looms, and 135,000 persons. Queen's ware, and the inkle manufactory, were likewise important branches in the same vicinage; and, as we have previously specified in our description of the several towns, other manufactures are carried on to an enormous amount. Extensive iron-works have been established in Fife, on the Clyde, and at Carron, a village in Stirlingshire, two miles from Falkirk, which is the most extensive in Europe, and in which upwards of 1600 workmen are employed. It consumes weekly about 800 tons of coals, 400 tons of iron stone and ore, and 100 tons of lime-stone. All kinds of cast iron goods are manufactured here, both for domestic use, agriculture, and war, at a much lower rate than elsewhere. The approach to the works is striking and terrible: the atmosphere being illuminated with the burning matter and immense fires—the roaring blasts of the bellows—the noise of weighty hammers striking upon the anvils—and the various machines in action, recal to the idea Vulcan and his Cyclops preparing thunderbolts. These works are carried on by a chartered company, divided into various shares. Those small cannons called *carronades*, used with such effect upon the poop of a man of war, were first made here, whence they are named.

Some interesting details are furnished by Mr. Chalmers respecting the progressive improvements of the manufactures and commerce of Scotland since the Union; and the principal of these we shall lay before our readers.

The surplus of linen over the consumption, made in North Britain, was,

In 1707, estimated at 1,500,000 yards

1727 — — 2,000,000

1754 — — 8,914,369

1764 — — 12,823,048

1772 — — 13,089,006

1782 — — 15,348,744

1792 — — 22,065,386

1795 — — 24,000,000

At which period the introduction of the cotton manufacture rendered that of linen of less importance, and consequently diminished the quantity made for exportation.

The quantity of corn exported from Scotland was,

In 1707, estimated at 22,937 quarters.

1749 — — 105,573

But

But, owing to the increase of population, the exportation from one port is nearly counterbalanced by imports into others.

The importation of cotton wool,

In 1755, amounted to 105,851 lbs.

1789 — — 2,401,661

1803 — — 8,620,996

The value of cargoes exported from North Britain, in 1754, amounted to £670,000 sterling.

1764 — — 1,244,000

1774 — — 1,372,143

1792 — — 1,230,884

1802 — — 2,602,858

The shipping employed in the foreign trade,

In 1765, amounted to 33,352 tons

1782 — — 50,530

1792 — — 84,027

1802 — — 94,276

1805 — — 100,000

The whole number of Scottish ships, at the time of the Union,

In 1765, amounted to 250, carrying 14,485 tons.

1807 — — 2581 — 210,295

Connected with the commerce of Scotland are its coins, weights, and measures. Since the Union the coins are the same both in England and Scotland; but the Scotch money of account is still occasionally used, the pound of North Britain being equal to 1s. 8d. sterling: and some of the Scotch weights and measures still differ in some respects.

Religion.—Since the Revolution of 1688, the ecclesiastical government of Scotland is of the Presbyterian form; an establishment attempted in the 16th century, but uniformly opposed by the monarchs, as unfavourable to the royal influence. Experience has shewn that the prejudice was unfounded; but violent commotions happened before the Presbyterian triumph became firm. This form of church government excludes all pre-eminence of rank, as all the ministers are on an equal footing. The ecclesiastical power is distributed among the judicatories of the church in the following manner. Scotland is divided into 935 parishes, each of which has one or more ministers, who discharge the duties of their pastoral office according to their discretion, and are accountable only to the presbytery, of which they are members. In matters relating to discipline, they are assisted by elders selected from among the most intelligent and respectable of their parishioners; but these elders have no right to teach or dispense the sacrament, their proper office being to watch over the morals of the people, and to visit the sick. These elders, and the minister of the parish, form what is called the *kirk session*, which is the lowest assembly of ecclesiastical judicature in Scotland. Next above the *kirk session* is the *presbytery*, composed of an indefinite number of ministers of con-

tiguous parishes, with one ruling elder elected half-yearly as the representative of each kirk session, so that a presbytery is composed of an equal number of ministers and elders. The presbyteries take cognizance of all ecclesiastical matters within their bounds; judge in cases of appeal from the kirk sessions; and decide on the qualification of candidates for holy orders. Three, or more adjacent presbyteries form a *synod*, of which there are fifteen. The synod is a court of appeal for the presbyteries within its bounds, and has the power of revoking or confirming the judgment of the inferior assemblies; an appeal lying from it to the *general assembly*, which is the great ecclesiastical court of Scotland, and is composed of representatives from presbyteries, universities, and royal boroughs, in the following proportion.

The presbyteries send 200 ministers, and 89 ruling elders; the royal boroughs, 67 elders; and the universities, 5 representatives, who are either ministers or elders. These representatives are elected annually; and the assembly itself meets once a year, and holds its sittings for about ten days, after which it is dissolved by the moderator, or ecclesiastical president, and the lord-commissioner who sits in it as the representative of the king. The general assembly judges in appeals from the synods, and can also enact laws, which are binding in the church for a whole year. A permanent law can be made only in the following manner: it must be decreed by a majority of the general assembly, and be afterwards remitted to the consideration of the presbyteries. If a majority of these approve it, and it is sanctioned by a majority of the succeeding general assembly, it becomes a law, and can only be repealed in the form in which it is enacted. The number of presbyteries and parishes that compose each synod will appear from the following table.

Synods.	Presbyteries.	Parishes.
1. Lothian and Tweeddale	7	107
2. Merse and Tixiotdale	6	67
3. Dumfries	5	54
4. Galloway	3	37
5. Glasgow and Ayr	7	123
6. Perth and Stirling	5	79
7. Fife	4	65
8. Forfar and Mearns	6	81
9. Aberdeen	9	103
10. Murray	7	53
11. Ross	3	24
12. Sutherland and Caithness	3	23
13. Argyle	5	52
14. Glenelg	5	29
15. Orkney	4	38
	79	935

The

The salaries of the ministers are paid by the proprietors of the lands within their parishes, called the *heritors*, and are fixed by the court of session, acting as a committee of the Scottish parliament. They are in general paid partly in money, and partly in kind.

The most ceremonious ordinance of the Scotch church is the administration of the sacrament. This takes place twice a year; and the communicants are generally very numerous, though they commonly are examined by the minister, and receive from him a token of their qualification. Before the sacrament is administered a solemn fast is held on the preceding Thursday, and the communicants attend divine service on the Saturday before, and Monday after the reception of the ordinance.

There are in Scotland numerous Dissenters from the established persuasion. Among these, some differ in nothing but their ideas of church-government, as those that are called the churches of relief. These comprise a single synod, composed of six presbyteries, and seventy-three parishes. Two of the principal sects of Scotch Dissenters, or, as they are called, *Seceders*, are the Burghers and Antiburghers, both independent of the established church, and differing from each other principally in this circumstance, that the Burghers admit the legality of the oaths taken by burgesses in some of the royal boroughs, while the latter deny the legality of these oaths. The Burghers are the most numerous.

Besides these Dissenters, there are in Scotland seven dioceses belonging to the Episcopalians. The Wesleyan Methodists and Anabaptists are tolerably numerous; but Quakers and Roman Catholics are few in number; the *Glassites*, or, as they are sometimes called, *Sandemanians*, are numerous and respectable.

Laws, Constitution, &c.—The ancient constitution and government in Scotland have been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority. But the Scottish constitution of government was too much of the aristocratic kind to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppress their tenants and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promises, viz.

“In the name of Christ, I promise these three

things to the Christian people my subjects. First, that I shall give, order, and employ my force and assistance, that the church of God, and the Christian people, may enjoy true peace during our government. Secondly, I shall prohibit and hinder all persons, of whatever degree, from violence and injustice. Thirdly, in all judgments I shall follow the prescriptions of justice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may shew mercy unto me and to you.”

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown, by military service. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commissioned ambassadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of state and privy-councillors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and restrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was so bounded, that he was not even intrusted with the executive part of the government. And so late as the minority of James IV. who was contemporary with and son-in-law to Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the first servant of his people, as appears by the act still extant. In short, the constitution was rather aristocratical than monarchical. The abuse of these aristocratical powers by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very considerable interest among the lower ranks; and a prince who had sense and address to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the most overgrown of his subjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. shewed a disrespect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithstanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were assisted by the clergy, whose revenues were immense, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called the *lords of the articles*. These were chosen men out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgesses. The bishops, for instance,

chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; and these sixteen jointly chose eight barons (or knights of the shire), and eight commissioners for burghs; and to all those were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole.

Their business was to prepare all questions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; so that, in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being, by his clergy, and the places he had to bestow, always sure of the lords of the articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It must be acknowledged that this institution seems to have prevailed by stealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular system; even its modes varied; and the greatest lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never lost sight of their original principles; and though Charles I. wished to form these lords of the articles into regular machines for his own despotic purposes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy consequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a fresh instance how well they understood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voted king James at once to have forfeited his crown, which they gave to the prince and princess of Orange.

This spirit of resistance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the most insupportable ministerial tyranny ever since the Restoration. If it be asked, Why did they submit to that tyranny? The answer is, In order to preserve their independency, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to destroy, by uniting them with England; they therefore chose to submit to a temporary evil; but they took the first opportunity to get rid of their oppressors.

Scotland, when it was a separate kingdom, cannot be said to have had any peers, in the English sense of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquises, earls, and lords, were hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no distinct house, for they sat in the same room with the commons, who had a deliberate and decisive vote with them in all public matters. And a baron, though not a baron of parliament, might sit upon a lord's assize in matters of life and death: nor was it necessary for the assizers or jury to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal customs, even at the time of the Restoration, were so prevalent, and the rescue of the great criminal was commonly so much apprehended, that seldom above two days passed between the sentence and the execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scottish history, by confounding parliaments with conventions: the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws

as well as lay on taxes; a convention, or meeting of the states, assembled for the purposes of taxation only. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four lesser officers of state; the great were, the lord high chancellor, high treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary; the four lesser were, the lords register, advocate, treasurer-depute, and justice-clerk. Since the Union none of these continue, excepting the offices of privy-seal, register, advocate, and justice-clerk; a third secretary of state has occasionally been nominated by the king, for Scottish affairs, but under the same denomination as the other two secretaries. The above officers of state sat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal. The offices of constable and marshal were hereditary. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral; and the office of marshal is exercised by a knight-marshal.

The office of chancellor in Scotland differed little from the same in England; the same may be said of the lords treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary. The lord register was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treasury, exchequer, and session, and keeper of all public records. Though this office was only during the king's pleasure, yet it was very lucrative, by disposing of his deputation, which lasted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon a division. The lord-advocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extensive; because, by the Scottish laws, he is the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the justiciary, and likewise concurs in all pursuits before supreme courts for breaches of the peace, and in all matters civil, wherein the king or his donator hath interest. Two solicitors are named by his majesty, by way of assistants to the lord advocate. The office of justice-clerk entitles the possessor to preside in the criminal court of justice, when the justice-general, an office which will be described hereafter, is absent.

The ancient constitution of Scotland admitted of many other officers both of the crown and state; but they are either now extinct, or too inconsiderable to be described here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the *rex fœcialium*, or grand herald of Scotland, is still in being; and it was formerly a place of great splendor and importance, insomuch that the science of heraldry was preserved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned solemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority (which is not the case in England), in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy council of Scotland, before the Revolution,

lution, had, or assumed inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy council of Great Britain; and the civil and criminal causes in Scotland are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The first is that of the college of justice, which was instituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to supply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took the names of the lords of council and session, which the present members of the college of justice still retain. This court consists of a president and fourteen ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a standing jury in all matters of property that lie before them. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been matter of surprise, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, can be easily accounted for, because those laws and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. The lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity; but their decrees are reversible by the British house of lords, to which an appeal lies. The supreme criminal judge was named the Justiciar, and the court of judicature succeeded to his power.

The justice court is the highest tribunal in Scotland; but in its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord justice general, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the justice-clerk, and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. The verdict of a jury condemns or acquits, but without the necessity of their being unanimous. Twice in the year, during the spring and harvest vacations, the judges of this court hold circuits in certain boroughs appointed by statute.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the same power, authority, and jurisdiction over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters competent to the court of exchequer in England, are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland was, in the

the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction; and the lord high-admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same; and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to his jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high-admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before this court; but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law which, in some cases, is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse towns, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary is reckoned worth £1000 a year; the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college, or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who call themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a bye-government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland: we shall pass to those that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron-courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffdoms were generally hereditary; but by act of parliament, they are all now vested in the crown; it being enacted, that all high sheriffs, or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs, and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputes, and steward-deputes, it is enacted that there shall be only one in each county or stewardry, who must be an advocate, of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices for life, unless guilty of some offence. Some other regulations have been introduced, highly for the credit of the sheriff's courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the

same

same power in them as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous and so extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now dissolved by act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three hours in the day-time. These courts were, in former times, invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tythes, divorces, and causes of that nature: but in almost all other parts of the kingdom there sits but one judge on these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland exercise the same powers as those in England. In former times their office, though of old standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The institution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invasion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to register the depositions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office is now but seldom exercised.

The legal punishments in Scotland are nearly the same as in England; only that of beheading is performed by an instrument called the *maiden*, which resembles the French guillotine, and of which the model was brought from Halifax, in England, to Scotland, by the regent, earl Morton; where it was first used for the execution of himself.

From the above short view of the Scottish laws and institutions, it is plain that they were radically the same with those of the English. The latter allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majestatem*, their oldest law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, say, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majestatem*, even with the peculiari-

ties of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exist in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are extensive, and before the Union they made laws relating to shipping, to masters and owners of ships, to mariners and merchants by whom they were freighted; to manufactures, such as plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of salmon and herrings; and to the importing and exporting several commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is subject to their regulation: they fix the staple port, which was formerly at Dort, and afterwards at Campvere. Their conservator is, indeed, nominated by the crown; but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his salary: so that, in truth, the whole staple trade is subjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very singular institution, and sufficiently proves the vast attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its present form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent consequences for the benefit of commerce.

The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The English law-reports are of the same nature with the Scotch practice; and their acts of *sederunt* answer to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsets and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeasances; their pointing of goods, after letters of horning, is much the same as the English executions upon outlawries; and an appeal against the king's pardon, in cases of murder, by the next of kin to the deceased, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other usages are the same in both kingdoms. There was in particular an ancient custom, which proves the similarity between the English and Scottish constitution. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scottish constitution, was called the *Moot*, or *Mute-hill*; all national affairs were here transacted, judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill was probably of the same nature as the Saxon *Folcmote*, and signified only the hill of meeting.

Scotland is at present represented in the imperial parliament by sixteen peers, chosen by the whole body of the Scottish peerage; and 45 commoners, of whom 30 are elected by the counties, and the remaining 15 by as many districts of royal boroughs, one by each district. The following table will shew how they are represented.

Edinburgh

Edinburgh city	1
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tain	1
Fortrose, Inverness, Nairne, and Forres	1
Elgin, Cullen, Banff, Inverary, and Kintore	1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montrose, Aberbrothick, and Brechin	1
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cupar, and St. Andrew's	1
Crail, Kilrenny, Anstruther East and West, and Pittenweem	1
Dysart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorn, and Burnt Island	1
Inverkatheon, Dunfermline, Queensferry, Culross, and Stirling	1
Glasgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton	1
Haddington, Dunbar, N. Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh	1
Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanark	1
Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kirkcudbright	1
Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn	1
Ayr, Irvine, Rothsay, Campbeltown, and Inverary	1

The county members are elected by gentlemen possessed of landed property valued in the cess books of the county at £400 Scots yearly rent, according to a valuation first introduced during the administration of Cromwell, and afterwards sanctioned by parliament.

Revenue.—The great increase of the public revenue of Scotland will appear from the following statement:—

In 1706 it amounted to	£68,694 sterling.
1720 — —	150,000
1750 — —	250,000
1800 — —	1,790,000

Order of Knighthood.—The only order of knighthood is that of the Thistle, which was instituted, as the Scotch writers assert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offensive and defensive league with Charlemagne, king of France; or, as others say, on account of his victory over Athelstan, king of England, when he vowed in the kirk of St. Andrew, that he and his posterity should ever bear in their ensigns the figure of that cross on which the saint suffered. It has been frequently neglected, and as often resumed. It consists of the sovereign and twelve companions, who are called Knights of the Thistle, and have on their ensign the significant motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*, "None shall safely provoke me."

SECTION III.

Summary of the History of Scotland.

THOUGH the writers of ancient Scottish history are too fond of fable, yet it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors and other evidences, that Scot-

land was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians appear to have been the first inhabitants; the Picts probably were the Britons who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, about fourscore years before the descent of Julius Cæsar, and who, settling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The tract lying southward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all these people, in process of time, were subdued by the Scots.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the history of that war is not only transmitted with great precision, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raised by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave stand made by Galdus against that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the sentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble historian with the same generous passion. It is evident, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal some parts of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned southward to the province of Horesti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwise called Corbred, was, according to the Scottish historians; the twenty-first in a lineal descent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has been disputed, yet nothing can be more certain from the Roman histories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a succession of brave and wise princes; during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant resistance obliged Agricola himself, and, after him, the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous prætentures or walls; (one between the friths of Clyde and Forth, and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway Frith) to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never subdued.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Christian æra, by Donald I. The Picts had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and, being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, joined the Romans against the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and considered themselves as one people; so that the Scots monarchy suffered a short eclipse: but it broke out

with more lustre than ever, under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his successors gave many severe overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain, in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a British historian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and, having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very sea; so that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief, and, in the famous letter which they called their *groans*, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being swallowed up by the sea, or perishing by the sword of the barbarians; for so all nations were called who were not Romans, or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldest histories, and those that are least favourable to monarchy, that the succession to the crown of Scotland still continued in the family of Fergus, but generally descended collaterally; till the inconveniences of that mode of succession were so much felt, that by degrees it fell into disuse, and it was at last settled in the descending line.

About the year 796 the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince so much respected, that his friendship was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which continued inviolate while the monarchy of Scotland had an existence. No fact of equal antiquity is better attested than this league, together with the great service performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the vast dominions of that great conqueror. The Picts still remained in Scotland as a separate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally subdued them, but not in the savage manner mentioned by some historians, by extermination; for he obliged them to incorporate themselves with their conquerors, by taking their names, and adopting their laws. The successors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almost perpetual wars with the Saxons on the southward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the east; who, being masters of the sea, harassed the Scots by powerful invasions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the English: for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at last driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Danish monarchs who then governed England were not more successful against the Scots, who maintained their freedom and independency, not only against foreigners, but against their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words which signify a *large head*, but most probably from his great capacity, was the eighty-sixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the supposed founder of the monarchy; the forty-seventh from its restorer, Fergus II.; and the twenty-second from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakspeare, who keeps close to the facts delivered by historians, can be no stranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own history, previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wise and magnanimous prince, and in no respect inferior to his contemporary, the Norman Conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward surnamed the Outlaw, son to Edmund Ironside, king of England. By the death of her brother, Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the posterity of that princess, who was one of the wisest and worthiest women of the age; and her daughter Maud was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his son, treacherously, it is said, at the siege of Alnwick, by the besieged.

Malcolm III. was succeeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whose legitimacy was disputed. They were succeeded by Edgar, the son of Malcolm III. who was a wise and valiant prince; he was succeeded by Alexander I. and upon his death David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithstanding the endeavours of some historians to conceal what they cannot deny, viz. the glories of this reign, it appears, that David was one of the greatest princes of that age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. To him Henry II. the mightiest prince of his age, owed his crown; and his possessions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England. The code of laws drawn up by him do his memory eternal honour. They are said to have been compiled under his inspection by learned men, whom he assembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melross. He was succeeded by his grandson, Malcolm IV.; and he, by William, surnamed, from his valour, the Lion. William's son, Alexander II. was succeeded, in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, first, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders's daughter; David; and Margaret, who married Hangowan, or, as some call him, Eric, son to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret

Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway; in whom king William's whole posterity failed; and the crown of Scotland returned to the descendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

This detail has been given, because it is connected with great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great grandson to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his eldest daughter Margaret; and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce), grandson to the same earl of Huntingdon by his youngest daughter Isabel; became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not so well established in Europe as they are at present, rendered the case very difficult. Both parties were almost equally matched in interest; but, after a confused interregnum of some years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most politic and ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete absurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and, finding that Baliol was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, he awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a slave, without Baliol's resenting it.

After this, Edward used many bloody endeavours to annex the crown of Scotland to his own; but though the Scots were often defeated, and he for a short time made himself master of Scotland, yet the people were ready to revolt on every favourable opportunity. Those who were so zealously attached to the independence of their country, as to be resolved to hazard every thing, were but few, compared to those in the interest of Edward and Baliol. Edward availed himself of their weakness and his own power. He accepted of a formal surrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a pension, but detained him in England; and sent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the least suspected, to different prisons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to sign instruments of their subjection to him; and most barbarously carried off, or destroyed, all the monuments of their history, and the evidences of their independence; and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic stone, which is still to be seen in Westminster Abbey.

These severe proceedings, while they rendered the Scots sensible of their slavery, revived the desire of freedom; and Edward, finding their spirits were not to be subdued, affected to treat them upon an equality with his own subjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have since taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with disdain,

and united under the brave William Wallace, the truest hero of his age, to expel the English. Wallace performed actions that entitle him to eternal renown, in executing this scheme. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increasing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the son of the first competitor, began to suspect that he aimed at the crown, especially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling; had reduced the garrisons of Berwick and Roxburgh; and was declared by the states of Scotland their protector. Their jealousy engaged them in cabals against the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the most numerous and best disciplined army England had ever seen; for it consisted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horse-men completely armed, and 4000 light armed; attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. With 40,000 men under his immediate command, he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, at the same time that the brave regent was deserted by Cumming, the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the best division of his countrymen. Wallace, whose troops did not exceed 30,000, was defeated with great loss, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace still continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions against the English; but he was betrayed by his countryman Monteith, and ungenerously put to death at London as a traitor. Edward died, as he was preparing to renew his invasion of Scotland with a still more desolating spirit of ambition, after having destroyed, according to the best historians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died soon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inspired his son, who was a prisoner at large about the English court, with the glorious resolution of vindicating his country's independency. He escaped from London, and with his own hand killed the treacherous Cumming; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his four brothers, he assumed the crown; but was defeated by the English (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After this defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Western Isles of Scotland, where his fatigues and sufferings were as inexpressible as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas especially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughter were sent prisoners to England, where his best friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death; yet such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, except the castle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that

that was given him by the thoughtless conduct of Edward II. who at last raised an army more numerous and better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conquest of Scotland. It is said that it consisted of 100,000 men; the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000, but all veterans, bred up in a detestation of tyranny. Edward led his host towards Stirling, then besieged by Bruce; who had chosen, with the greatest judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton: those under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himself, was reckoned the best knight in Scotland; his nephew Randolph, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high steward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmness of Bruce and his friends to resist it, which they did so effectually, that they gained one of the most complete victories recorded in history. The Scotch writers make the loss of the English amount to 50,000 men, while their own exceeded not 4000. The flower of the English nobility were killed or taken prisoners. Their camp, immensely rich, and calculated for the purpose rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himself, with a few followers, were pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he escaped in a fishing-boat. This great and decisive battle happened in the year 1314.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a series of glorious successes; and so well did his nobility understand the honour of their country, and so unfettered were they by superstition, that, in a letter they sent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had set aside Baliol for debasing the crown by holding it of England; and that they would do the same by Robert, if he should make the like attempt. Robert, having thus delivered Scotland, sent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greatest part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but, by exposing himself too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, made an advantageous peace with England; and died, in 1329, with the reputation of being the greatest hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be said to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was succeeded by his son David II. He was a virtuous prince; but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipsed by his brother-in-law and enemy Edward III. of England, whose sister he married. Edward, who was as ambitious as any of his predecessors of making the conquest of Scotland, espoused the cause of Baliol, son to Baliol the original competitor. His progress was at first amazingly rapid;

and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David, however, had the misfortune to be taken prisoner by the English at the battle of Durham; and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ransom; and died in peace without issue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The first king of that name was Robert II. a wise and brave prince. He was succeeded by his son Robert III. whose age and infirmities disqualified him from reigning; so that he was forced to trust the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who seems to have had an intention to seize the crown. Robert, on this, attempted to send his second son to France; but he was ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and, after suffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ransom. During the imprisonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greatest height in France, where they supported that tottering monarchy against England, and their generals obtained some of the first titles of the kingdom.

James, the first of that name, upon his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government, enacted many wise laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reign of Henry IV. and V. where he saw the feudal system refined from many of the imperfections which still adhered to it in his own kingdom: he determined, therefore, to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover such lands as had been unjustly wrested from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns; but the execution of these designs cost him his life, he being murdered in his bed by some of the chief nobility in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority succeeded: but James II. promised to equal the greatest of his ancestors in warlike and civil virtues, when he was killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the thirteenth year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III.; and his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, during which he was slain in battle, in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave; loved magnificence, delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected

protected commerce, which greatly increased in his reign; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family-distemper, a predilection for the French, in whose cause he was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent; and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first a daughter of the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the industry of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent presents. But James took little share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrines of the Reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the instigation of the clergy, to a religious persecution; though it is generally believed that, had he lived longer, he would have seized all the church revenues, in imitation of Henry. Having slighted some friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this short expedition, the English army retired to Berwick. Upon its retreat, James sent ten thousand men to the western borders, who entered England at Solway Frith; and he followed at a small distance, ready to join them. Soon after, he gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commission, and conferring the command on his favourite, Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman. The army were so much disgusted with this alteration, that they were ready to disband, when a small body of English horse appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic seized the Scots, who immediately took to flight, supposing themselves to be attacked by the whole English army. The English cavalry, seeing them fly with such precipitation, closely pursued, and slew great numbers, taking prisoners seven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred soldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordnance. This disaster so much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illness, of which he died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her imprudence, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland; that being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her cousin-german, lord Darnley, whose untimely death hath given rise to much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for eighteen years; and afterwards, on motives of state policy, cruelly beheaded by queen Elizabeth, in 1587, in the forty-sixth year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded, in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after shewing considerable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, destroyed the independency, as it impoverished the people of Scotland; for the seat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to seek for situations in other countries. James, after a splendid, but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his unwise conduct, stirred both his Scottish and his English subjects to arms. It was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn against Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himself into the power of the Scottish army; they at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of their paying £400,000 to the Scots, which was said to be due to them for arrears. The Scots afterwards made several unsuccessful attempts to restore his son, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester (1651); after which, to the time of his restoration, the commonwealth of England, and the protector, gave law to Scotland.

The state of parties in England, at the accession of queen Anne, was such, that the Whigs once more had recourse to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the Union as it now stands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would listen to the proposals; but at last, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money distributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; since which event the history of Scotland becomes the same with that of England.

THE

SCOTTISH ISLES.

THE islands that belong to Scotland are numerous and important, and fall naturally into three grand divisions; the **HEBRIDES**, or **WESTERN ISLANDS**; the **ORKNEY ISLANDS**; and those of **SHETLAND**.

HEBRIDES, OR WESTERN ISLES.

To the west of the Chersonesus of Cantire, begin the Hebrides, or Western Islands, which are supposed to be near 300 in number.

The most southern is **ILA**, or **ISLAY**, about 28 miles in length, and nearly 18 in breadth. The coast is rocky, but has many safe harbours. It consists of three parishes, in the northernmost of which stands the village of *Bowmore*, the only regular town in the island; containing upwards of 500 inhabitants, and having also a good quay. Islay produces many black cattle, which are exported; and here are several rivers and lakes, abounding with fish. In the centre of the island is Loch Finlagan, in which is a small islet, on which the Macdonalds, lords of the isles, lived in all the pomp of royalty: part of the remains of their palace is still to be seen. Lead mines were here discovered, in 1763; copper has also been found; and there are appearances of emery, and plumbago. The produce of grain is not considerable, being chiefly barley and oats; but a quantity of flax is cultivated, which is fabricated into coarse thread, of which the value of £3000 is exported annually. The heaths abound with vipers, the bite of which the natives are said to cure by a poultice of hemlock and henbane. At Saneg-mor is an intricate cave. In 1801 this island contained 9500 inhabitants.

JURA is divided from the last by a narrow sound: it is about 20 miles in length, but the breadth seldom more than five. It is one of the most rugged of the Hebrides, which, in general, are mountainous regions. The best crops are potatoes and barley; and the isle contains abundance of peat. The cattle are small, but the sheep excellent. It contains iron-ore and manganese. The inhabitants all reside in the village of *Jura*, on the east side of the island, the western part being too rugged for cultivation. Here were 238 houses, and 1202 persons in 1801. The noted gulf or whirlpool of *Brecan*, is on the northern extremity of *Jura*.

To the west of *Jura*, are the isles of **ORANSA** and **COLONSA**; and the strait between them being

dry at low water, they may be considered as one island, about ten miles in length, and one to three broad, and containing about 10,000 acres of land, the soil of which is generally light and arable, producing barley and potatoes. Much kelp is made on the shores of these islands, and the banks abound with coral. The number of inhabitants is about 1000.

The next isle of any consequence is that of **MULL**, one of the largest of the Hebrides, and surrounded with smaller interesting islands. It is about 28 miles in length, and from 18 to 25 in breadth, intersected by several small arms of the sea. It is divided into three parochial districts, comprehending several small adjacent islands. The interior is rude, and covered with heath, from whence immense herds of black cattle are reared and exported. According to the statistical account, agriculture, throughout the island is performed in a slovenly manner, and the chief manure is seaweed, or shell-sand. The climate is moist, and the rains heavy and frequent, producing aguish complaints. The roads are rugged and mountainous. The only village that has the least claim to the name of a town is *Tobermorey*, at the northern extremity of the island. It has lately been erected by the society for the encouragement of the fisheries: it has a custom house, and a post-office; and contains about 100 houses, and 500 inhabitants. The chief produce of Mull is barley and potatoes, and the shores abound with plenty of excellent fish. In 1801 here were 8367 inhabitants.

Mull stands in the centre of several small but interesting isles. On the east is **LISMORE**, a small island, fertile in oats, bigg, or beer, often called by the vague name of barley, though it is a very distinct species from the English barley. This isle was anciently the chief seat of the bishops of Argyll, who were thence denominated bishops of *Lismore*, and some ruins of their residence remain: it was in consequence well replenished with deer, and fables have arisen that it was once a forest. It contains about 500 inhabitants. To the south of *Lismore* occurs **KEREARA**, a small island, four miles long and two broad, remarkable only for the death of Alexander II. in 1249.

IONA, or **ICOLMKILL**, to the south-west of Mull, 3 miles long, by 1 broad, is venerable as having been the seat of literature and religion, while the rest of western Europe was sunk in ignorance and barbarity.

city. Several religious houses were here founded by St. Columba in the sixth century, the ruins of which still remain, though much dilapidated: great care has of late years been taken of these remains, by the Argyle family, who have encircled the main buildings with a high wall. The cathedral is 36 yards long, and 8 broad; the east window of which is a handsome specimen of Gothic architecture. Contiguous to this fabric is an inclosed burial ground, containing the tombs of 48 Scottish kings, 4 of Ireland, 8 of Norway, and one of France, who were interred here, from the supposed sanctity of the place. This island is the property of the Duke of Argyle; and this place, which was once so dedicated to religious worship, has now only service performed four times in a year. The isle produces beautiful white marble, and large blocks of jasper, or rather indurated steatites. The number of inhabitants is about 500.

STAFFA, about six miles to the north of Iona, was first introduced to public notice by Sir Joseph Banks. Buchanan mentioned the isle, but not its grand singularities; its beautiful basaltic columns, much superior in beauty and grandeur to those that compose the Giant's Causeway in Ireland; and one of the most surprising objects of nature, the vast basaltic cavern, called *Au-ua-vine*, or the harmonious grotto. The echoes that issue from it may arise, either from a melodious sound produced by the percussion of the waves at the farthest extremity, or from the exact order in which the columns are disposed. Height of the entrance 56 feet, breadth 35, thickness of the exterior vault 20. The depth, or length of the cavern is no less than 140 feet. Fingall's cave is 53 feet wide at the entrance, 117 feet high, and 250 long; the arch is composed of two unequal segments of a circle, forming a natural pediment. The roof is upwards of 20 feet thick, and has a strong resemblance to Mosaic work. The bottom of the cave is filled with the sea, reaching to the very extremity, and can only be entered by a boat in very calm weather.

TIREY, or TIRIE, lies about twenty-one miles north-west from Mull; it is about eleven miles long, and two and a half broad. The surface is so level, that the waves are often seen from the one shore rising above the level of the other. The duke of Argyle is the proprietor, whose factor has a neat residence on a small island in one of the lochs. Fishing, and the making of kelp, are the chief employments of the inhabitants. It produces a most beautiful marble, of a rose colour, penetrated with small irregular crystals of green hornblende, and which the French naturalists have, from the name of the isle, called *tirite*; no similar marble being any where found. Tirey is generally fertile, and contains 400 houses, and 2416 inhabitants.

COL, to the north-east of the last mentioned, is a mountainous and barren island; being about thirteen miles long, and three broad, and contains about 800 inhabitants. It abounds in fish, and has numerous flocks of sheep and goats.

All the preceding islands belong to and form a part of Argyleshire.

EIGG, or EGG, is one of a cluster which form the parish of small isles, comprehending this and the three following islands, which belong to Inverness-shire. It is about eight miles distant from the main land, and contains about 400 inhabitants. It is chiefly comprised of huge rocks of lava, resembling pumice-stone.

MUCK, situated about four miles south-west from Eigg, is a small island, containing about 200 inhabitants, who are solely supported by the fishery; that of cod and ling being very productive. And a considerable quantity of oil is extracted from the liver of the sun-fish, which is eagerly purchased by the Glasgow merchants.

RUM, the largest island of the parish, is about seven miles west from Eigg, being eight miles long, and nearly as many broad, and containing about 500 inhabitants. The surface is hilly, rugged, and barren, though it appears formerly to have been covered with trees. The chief employment is that of fishing.

CANNA, another small island, to the north-west of the last mentioned, about four miles long, and one broad. Here are several remarkable basaltic pillars; and one of the hills is remarkable for its effects on the mariner's compass, having power to reverse the direction. The inhabitants are about 300, who are similarly engaged as those of the last mentioned island.

SKYE is one of the most considerable of the Hebrides, belonging to Inverness-shire. It is about 60 miles long, and in some places nearly as many broad, and is divided from the main land by a strait, which, at the ferry of Glenelg, is not more than half a mile wide. The face of the country is very hilly; and some of the hills are covered with snow in the middle of summer. The soil in general is black and mossy, and better adapted for pasture than tillage; the crooked spade is almost the only instrument used in agriculture. Skye has been long noted for an excellent breed of small cattle, vast herds of which are exported. Beside the beasts, birds, and reptiles, in common with the other islands, here are three species of serpents, all of them poisonous. The climate of this island is moist, the air being loaded with vapours; and hardly a day throughout the year is free from rains, which is sometimes so heavy as to destroy the crops. *Portree* is the only town on the island, which is a thriving place, having a good harbour with excellent anchorage. It has two great cattle fairs in May and July, and contains

contains about 1000 inhabitants. Many valuable minerals have been found upon this island, but none of them are wrought to any advantage. The whole island belongs to two proprietors, Lord Macdonald and the Laird of Macleod. The inhabitants are in general a strong healthy race of people; though the dampness of the climate renders agues and dysenteries frequent. The number of persons on this island in 1795 was somewhat short of 12,000; but, owing to the encouragement given to the fisheries, and other causes, in 1801 they amounted to 14,476. Between Skye and the main land, towards its northernmost extremity, lies the island of

RAASAY, about 12 miles long, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ broad. It does not afford much ground either for tillage or pasturage, being rocky, hilly, and barren; and the precipices are so steep, that the cattle are often killed by falling down them. The inhabitants are in number about 500.

RONAY, to the north of Raasay, is about 4 miles long, and 2 broad, and is tolerably fertile in oats, bigg, &c. It contains 347 inhabitants.

At a more considerable distance from the main land of Scotland lie a chain of islands, the most southern of which, of any consequence, is,

WATERSAY, which is about 4 miles long, and 2 broad; it is of consequence, because it affords a safe asylum for the fishing vessels, having an excellent harbour. Its inhabitants amount to about 50.

BARRAY, north of Watersay, is 12 miles long, and from 3 to 6 broad. It is low and flat on the west side, and uneven and rocky on the east. The inhabitants, about 1500 in number, are supported by fishing, and are said annually to export 50,000 cod and ling-fish to Glasgow.

SOUTH UIST, north of Barray, is 32 miles long, and 10 broad. Like the adjacent isles, the chief employment of the inhabitants is that of fishing; though in some parts of the island attention has of late been paid to the cultivation of the soil, which produces barley, oats, &c. and to making kelp. In 1801 it contained 881 houses, and 4585 inhabitants.

BENBECALA, situated between the islands of North and South Uist, has similar produce; and the inhabitants (about 1000) have similar occupations.

NORTH UIST is separated from Benbecala by a narrow strait, dry at low water. The whole island belongs to Lord Macdonald, and contains 693 houses, and 3010 inhabitants, employed in making kelp and fishing.

LEWIS, or **HARRIS**, the largest of the Hebrides, 70 miles in length, and in some places 40 in breadth, though in others not more than 15. The country is in general wild and bleak, though from the ap-

pearance of the soil it seems formerly to have been covered with wood. On every part of the coast it is very much indented with bays. The lakes and streams abound with salmon, red trout, and other fish. The only town in the island is *Stonnavay*, situated on a fine bay of the same name on the eastern coast. It is well built, has a commodious custom-house, town-house, assembly-room, and a handsome church. On an eminence near it stands *Seaforth Lodge*, the residence of Lord *Seaforth*, proprietor of the island. It contains upwards of 1000 inhabitants. Of late years the proprietor has bestowed great attention to its improvement; and, notwithstanding its northern situation, and the moistness of the climate, we may shortly expect to hear of its great improvement, from the extensive plantations that have been introduced, and the inclosing of the ground, which heretofore was one wild heath. In 1801 here were 11,704 inhabitants. The northern part of this island is annexed to Ross-shire; and the southern, which is generally known by the name of *Harris*, to Inverness-shire.

The **HANNAN ISLES**, about seven miles to the west of Lewis, are a group of small islands; which afford good pasturage, but are not constantly inhabited by any persons.

ST. KILDA is a small island, three miles long, and two broad, situated 60 miles west of Lewis; and 140 from the main land of Scotland; being entirely surrounded with rocks, which render it very difficult of approach. The inhabitants live chiefly by fishing, and the taking of wild-fowl: in the latter of which they are extremely dexterous; being linked together by couples, each having the end of a cord about thirty fathoms long, made of raw cow-hides, fastened about his body, they let themselves down alternately from the summit of the highest rocks, where they clamber among the cliffs for birds and eggs. The island contains about 100 inhabitants; and their houses are ranged in two regular rows. They are built of free-stone, and consist of two apartments, one for the family, and the other for the cattle in the winter season. The island grows barley and oats, which ripen very early. The equinoctial gales are here very violent, and the rains excessive.

General Remarks on the Manners, Customs, &c. of the Inhabitants.

The situation of these islands in the Great Atlantic Ocean, renders the air cold and moist in the greater part of them. The soil varies in different islands, and in different parts of the same island: some are mountainous and barren, producing little else than heath, wild myrtle, fern, and a little grass; while others, being cultivated, and manured with sea-weed, yield plentiful crops of oats and barley. The people are of the same race as those of

of the Highlands of Scotland, speak the same language, wear the same habits, and follow nearly the same customs. The tables of the opulent are generally supplied with wild fowl, moor game, fish, and poultry. Of vegetables they have no great variety, potatoes being the principal; and, as the climate is unfavourable to fruits, instead of tarts and sweetmeats, it is usual to bring on different preparations of milk after the dinner is removed. The bread is made of oats or barley: the first is rolled into thin cakes, which are coarse and hard; the barley cakes (for they never make a loaf) are thicker and softer, but, being of a very dark hue, are not relished by English travellers. These cakes, with a little fish and a few potatoes, are the chief diet of the lower classes. It is common for every man that can afford it to drink a glass of whiskey the first thing in a morning, perhaps as a security against the humidity of the climate. The people are strong, robust, tolerably healthy, and prolific, bringing up their children in the hardiest manner. The gentry resemble the Lowlanders in their behaviour, and have a remarkably frank open carriage. The poor are kind-hearted, but ignorant and superstitious: the clergy have taken great pains to convince them of their folly, so that they are now better informed than heretofore. Money is here very scarce; a hundred pounds being reckoned a great sum. Their principal consequence arises from the number of their cattle; a farmer being thought a very great man if possessed of from ten to forty cows; and many think themselves very well off if they have only two. The ceremony of a marriage is extremely simple: the minister attends the couple in the cottage where the bride resides; and, after having instructed them in the duties of their new condition, asks them if they take one another willingly, which being answered in the affirmative, he joins their hands, offers up a prayer for their happiness, and then retires. On the contrary, their funerals are noisy, and accompanied with grand entertainments. Where the people live in so simple a manner, there would be few customers to shops, or a variety of trades; hence these islands are supplied with those articles the people cannot make for themselves by pedlars, who visit them occasionally; but necessity obliges the people to be ingenious, and provide for themselves many articles which we purchase from shops or manufactories. They make their own candles, the wicks being composed of shreds of linen or woollen cloth. Oil for lamps they extract from the *cuddy*, a small fish not bigger than a gudgeon, which supplies food as well as light, and swarms in such numbers on the shores, that they are caught by dipping a basket in the water. The peasants tan their own leather, and make their own *brogues*, a kind of shoes stitched with thongs so loosely,

that though they defend the feet from the stones, do not keep out the wet. The housewives in general grind their oats in a hand-mill, called a *quern*, formed of two stones, one hollow and the other convex, turned by a handle. They wind and sing at the same time; and almost every occupation is accompanied by a song. The poverty of these people obliges them sometimes to milk their sheep and goats; but they never use sheep's milk until it is boiled. The commodities that may be called the staple of these islands, are black cattle, sheep, fish, and a sea-plant called *helf*, which abounds among the rocks, and, after being burnt, is exported for the use of the glass-houses, being a principal ingredient in that manufacture. These islands produce spontaneously a number of wild plants almost unknown in other climates; but there is hardly a shrub or tree to be seen, except in a few spots where some gentlemen have endeavoured to rear them with more trouble than success. Lead mines have been discovered in some of these islands; but they have not been worked to much advantage. Others have been found to contain quarries of limestone, free-stone, and marble; nor are these islands destitute of iron, talc, crystals, and many curious pebbles, some of which emulate the Brazilian topaz. The herring fishery to the westward of the island of Lewis is amazingly productive, often reaching in continued shoals farther than the eye can penetrate. According to Mr. Pennant, the commerce of these islands might be extended in such a manner as to render them a staple of trade, and an excellent nursery for seamen. In 1801 they were returned to parliament as containing about 50,000 inhabitants.

ORKNEY ISLANDS.

The ORKNEY ISLANDS, situate on the north of Scotland, from whence they are divided by the Pentland frith, are about 30 in number; the chief of which are the following.

POMONA, or MAINLAND, is about 25 miles long, and 13 broad. It is greatly intersected by the sea, and contains several spacious harbours. The chief towns are,

1. *Kirkwall*, a royal borough, and the capital of the Orkneys, stands on a neck of land washed on one side by the bay, and on the other by a pleasant inlet of the sea. It consists of one street, about a mile in length, very narrow, and badly paved; and the ends of the houses are placed next the street, giving it an awkward appearance. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Magnus, is a large Gothic pile, built in 1138 by Rognwald earl of Orkney; it is still entire, and part of it is used as the parish church. It is 226 feet long, 56 broad, and 133 high; the roof is supported by 14 pillars and 3 i arches.

arches, besides 4 which support the steeple. Here are also the ruins of a large castle, called King's Castle, which shew that it was formerly a large and elegant fabric. The harbour of Kirkwall is excellent, the whole being commanded by a fort erected in the times of Oliver Cromwell. In 1801 there were 417 houses, and 2621 inhabitants.

2. *Stromness* is another sea-port, on the southwestern part of the island, having an excellent harbour. Of late years it has greatly increased in size and population, and has an excellent trade. The houses are neat and modern, of which there were 222, with 1344 inhabitants, in 1801. The soil and products of this island being similar to that of the adjacent isles, to prevent tautology, a general outline of the whole is subjoined at the end of the description. The island of Pomona is divided into six parochial districts, and contains about 12,000 inhabitants.

Hoy is another considerable island, being about 16 miles long, and 6 broad. It is bare and barren, being encumbered with many huge rocks, one of which is nearly a mile perpendicular. Here is a curious relic of antiquity, called the *Dwarfic stone*, about 32 feet long, and 16 broad, and $7\frac{1}{2}$ high, hollowed into apartments. This island is but thinly inhabited, containing 56 houses, and 244 inhabitants.

SOUTH RONALDSHAY, the most southern of the Orkneys, is about 6 miles long, and 3 broad: of a level surface, and tolerably fertile. It has many good harbours, particularly one at the village of *St. Margaret's Hope*. The island contains about 1610 inhabitants.

STRONSAY, to the north of Pomona, is 7 miles long, and 3 broad; and contained, in 1801, 186 houses, with 824 inhabitants, principally employed in making kelp.

SHAPINSAAY, is another island north of Pomona, 7 miles long, and 5 broad, with 159 houses, and 744 inhabitants.

WESTRAY, and PAPA WESTRAY, two islands which compose but one parish, are situated among the most northern of the Orkneys. The soil is in general fertile, but kelp is the chief produce. This parish in 1801 had 232 houses, and 1624 inhabitants.

SANDAY, is a considerable island, being 12 miles long, and 3 broad, and consisting of two parishes, which contained 1772 inhabitants.

ROWSAY is about 8 miles long, and 4 broad, and contains 772 inhabitants, principally employed in the fisheries.

NORTH RONALDSHAY, the most northern of the Orkneys, is a small island, about three miles long and two broad, containing about 400 inhabitants.

Besides these, there are several others, to give a detail of which would merely be to repeat respect-

ing them what has been said of those already mentioned.

General Remarks, &c.—The Pentland frith, or strait, which divides these islands from the main land, is only about 12 miles over; but in it the sea runs with such impetuous force, by the meeting of so many currents, that no wind is able to bear vessels against them. The waves dash with such violence against the rocks, that the spray is carried some miles over land, and falls like a shower of rain. The navigation is extremely dangerous, on account of several whirlpools about the small islands of the *Skernies*, which lie in the middle of the frith. The general appearance of the Orkney islands is hilly and rocky, and in some places sandy and barren. The climate is moist and cold, but there is never much snow; and what there is remains but a short time. Agriculture is in a very backward and rude state: the oats are sown at the latter end of March or the beginning of April, and barley in the beginning of May; the summer is employed in preparing fuel from turf and peat, and the crops are reaped from the latter end of August to September; but it is frequently October, and even November, before it is all got in, owing to the equinoctial gales, which are here extremely violent. Little is done during the winter months, except fishing on the coasts of their respective islands to which they are in general confined, owing to the foggy and unsettled state of the climate, which precludes the possibility of mutual communication between the islanders. During three months, in the middle of summer, the inhabitants can see to read clearly at midnight; but in December and January the days are extremely short, the sun being only four hours above the horizon. The land animals in these islands are small horses, sheep, swine, black cattle, rabbits, red deer, and other game. The number of sheep is estimated at 50,000; but, as they mostly run wild on the hills, suffering all the severities of hunger and cold, they are a very puny breed, and five or seven shillings is reckoned a fair price for one for slaughter: their wool is excellent; and they are very prolific, producing generally two, and often three lambs at a time. Goats are not common to these islands. Among the wild birds that frequent these islands the eagle is very large and mischievous; hence a law is in existence among them, that whoever shall destroy one of those birds shall be entitled to a hen from every house in the parish in which it was killed: here are also wild geese, ducks, herons, hawks, gulls, swans, grouse, &c. The sea-coasts swarm with otters and seals, together with most kinds of fish found among the Western Islands, and some whales; here are abundance of shell-fish; and coral, ambergris, sponge, and spermaceti, are sometimes thrown ashore.

ashore. The language of the Orkneys is English, with a broad Scotch accent; and the gentry, like those of the main land, are intelligent and hospitable: the lower classes are very superstitious, but hardy and adventurous; and, from among these, many excellent seamen are produced for the British navy; they, from their infancy, are inured to great fatigue, being very adventurous in fishing and catching sea-fowl. The most prevalent disorders affecting these people arise chiefly from the moistness of their climate, and the prevalence of easterly winds, such as rheumatisms, agues, &c.; for a cure of the latter of which the inhabitants use a diet drink of bitters and antiscorbutics infused in ale. The chief trade of these islands arises from the supplying with provisions the vessels that touch upon the coast in northern voyages; and in the summer they are visited by immense numbers of herring vessels, the masters of which exchange tobacco, wine, spirits, and grocery, for provisions. The chief articles of export are beef, pork, butter, tallow, hides, calf skins, rabbit skins, salt fish, oil, feathers, and coarse linen cloth. But the staple commodity is kelp, the manufacture of which was introduced in 1730: for the first ten years it was of trifling consequence, the price being very low: from 1740 to 1760, the price is said to have been forty-five shillings per ton, and the money which it is said to have brought into the country has been estimated at £2000 per annum: the average price for the subsequent ten years amounted to about four guineas per ton, and the whole value to about £6000 sterling per annum: of each ton produced between 1770 and 1780 the average was £5 per ton, and the gross sum that the proprietors received was upwards of £10,000 sterling per annum: for thirteen years following, ending in 1793, the price was £6 per ton, and the gross receipts amounted to £17,000 per annum. Thus, in the space of little more than fifty years, the proprietors of these islands, where the seasons are very precarious, and the crops can by no means be depended upon for subsisting the inhabitants, received, in addition to their estates, the enormous sum of £370,000 sterling. Since the above period, to the present time, kelp has continued to rise in value: upwards of 3000 tons are now annually exported, at an average of £7 per ton, which produces upwards of £20,000 per annum to the proprietors. These islands are, like the Hebrides, extremely bare of timber; though it is pretty evident that they formerly were covered with extensive forests. In 1801 the whole group of these islands were returned to the imperial parliament as containing 4475 houses, and 24,445 inhabitants; of whom 2370 were returned as being employed in trade and manufacture, and 14,586 in agriculture.

THE SHETLAND ISLANDS,

Are situated about 15 leagues north of the Orkneys, and 44 west of the city of Bergen, in Norway. They are about 86 in number, but only about 40 of them are inhabited; the others being chiefly holmes, or rocky isles for pasturage: among the principal may be noticed,

MAINLAND, by far the largest island in the group, being upwards of 60 miles long, and from 12 to 30 broad; projecting into the sea, and having many irregular bays and promontories. It is divided into eight parochial districts. The interior is mountainous, and full of bogs and lochs. The only town is *Lerwick*, the capital of the whole cluster, situated on the east side of the island. This place is the general rendezvous of the fishing vessels of England, Scotland, Holland, and Denmark, who wait here for the immense shoals of herrings, which make their appearance in June. The town consists principally of one street of neat houses, and contains upwards of 1000 constant residents, who are greatly increased in the fishing season. The inhabitants of this town are polite and well informed; which is more than could well be expected, considering their northern situation. The whole population of the island is estimated at 10,000 persons.

YELL, to the north of Mainland, is a considerable island, 20 miles long, and 10 broad; the surface is rocky and boggy. The principal employment of the inhabitants is in fishing &c. Their number is upwards of 2000.

UNST, though the most northern of these islands, yet is one of the most fertile, affording excellent sheep-feed. Hogs and rabbits are abundant; and the horned cattle of good quality. This island had formerly 24 chapels, the ruins of which are still observable. In 1801 it contained 368 houses, and 2259 inhabitants.

FETLAR, south of Unst, is about 4 miles long, and 3 broad: it abounds with veins of copper-ore; black-lead is also found here; and garnets are sometimes met with in the centre of the island; which contains about 800 inhabitants.

BRESSAY is situated on the east of Mainland, nearly opposite Lerwick. It is about 4 miles long, and two broad, having several mosses of considerable extent, which supply the greatest part of the Shetland islands with fuel. It is also famous for its quarries of excellent slate. The number of inhabitants is about 650.

BURRA is a small isle, about three miles in circumference. The climate is pleasant, and the soil fertile in barley and oats, affording good pasturage. It contained about 150 inhabitants.

General

General Remarks, &c.—These islands contain three times as much land as the Orkneys. The climate is not good, though by no means so disagreeable as has generally been represented. The longest day in the island of Unst is full twenty hours, and the shortest four. The spring is late; the summer short; and the autumn wet and foggy. The winter quarter sets in about October, and continues till April, bringing continued rains, and violent and terrific storms; the sea swelling and raging in such a manner, that for six months their ports are inaccessible. During their long and gloomy winters the *Aurora Borealis*, or northern lights, are remarkably splendid, and afford a light almost equal to that of a full moon. The coast is well adapted for fishing; but this branch of traffic being much neglected, it was taken advantage of by the Dutch; but, from the encouragement that has lately been given to this trade by the government, it has greatly increased. The soil, though in many parts boggy and moorish, would admit of much better cultivation. But the inhabitants are indolent, and suffer the greater part to lie in a state of nature; and what is cultivated is performed in the rudest manner. The ploughs are formed of a small crooked piece of wood, at the end of which is placed a slender piece of oak, which is fastened to the yokes laid across the necks of oxen. The person conducting the plough walks by its side, and directs it by a handle fixed on the top; the driver, going before, pulls the oxen by a rope fixed to their horns. The animals of these islands are in every respect similar to those of the Orkneys. The inhabitants are stout and well made, of a swarthy complexion, and

marry very early; the chief requisites to begin life being a hut, a cow, a pot, fishing tackle, and a blanket. Provisions are cheaper here than in the Orkneys. As to manufactures, they make a coarse cloth for their own use, and a little linen; but their chief trade is the barter of stockings with the Dutch fishermen. These islands contain 3541 houses, and 22,379 inhabitants.

The islands of Orkney and Shetland compose one county, and send one member to the imperial parliament. The right of superiority was dismembered from the crown by the union parliament, and granted for a certain sum to the earl of Morton, who was by queen Anne appointed hereditary steward and judiciary. Lord Dundas acquired the superiority some years since by purchase from earl Morton. He is authorized to appoint certain judges, called bailiffs, one in every island and parish, who has power to hold courts, try civil causes, and superintend the manners of the inhabitants.

It has been a matter of great dispute from whence the inhabitants of these islands first came; but it is the general opinion that they were originally from Norway. According to Ossian, they were formerly a distinct kingdom, having powerful monarchs of their own, when they were conquered by the Norwegians in 1099. In the middle of the 13th century they were annexed to the Scottish crown; after which they were constantly disturbed by the pretensions of the Norwegians, till 1470, when James III. of Scotland married the daughter of the king of Norway, and they were finally given up in lieu of a dowry.

IRELAND.

SECTION I.

Name—Situation and Boundaries—Extent—Provinces—Counties—Cities—Chief Towns, &c. &c.

Name.—**H**ISTORIANS have advanced many conjectures as to the Latin (*Hibernia*), the Irish (*Erin*), as well as the English name of this island; but in all probability it takes its rise from a Phœnician or Gaelic term, signifying the most westward habitation. It was known to the Greeks about two centuries before the birth of Christ, by the name of *Juvvna*. Ireland was also well known to the Romans; and towards the decline of the Western empire, the ruling people being denominated *Scoti*, the country began to be termed *Scotia*; an appellation retained by the monastic writers till the 11th century, when the name *Scotia* having passed to modern Scotland, that of *Hibernia* began to assume, or rather re-assume, its honours.

Situation and Boundaries.—The situation of Ireland is between 51 and 55 deg. 30 min. north lat. and between 5 and 10 deg. west long. It is bounded on the north by the Deucalionian Sea; on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the east and south by St. George's Channel.

Extent.—The greatest length of Ireland, from the Stags of Cork Harbour to Bloody Farland Point, in the county of Donegal, is about 280 miles; and the greatest breadth, from the western point of Mayo to the mouth of Strangford Lough, is 160 miles. In consequence, however, of the deep indentations on the western coast, the breadth is very unequal; so that Galway and Dublin Bays are not 120 miles distant from each other; and there is not a spot in the island more than 60 miles from the sea. The superficial contents have been computed at 30,370 square miles, or 19,436,000 acres; and to each square mile, the population being about 5,000,000, there will be about 168 inhabitants.

Divisions.—Ireland is divided into four grand divisions, which are denominated provinces; viz. Ulster on the north, Leinster in the east, Connaught in the west, and Munster in the south. These are subdivided into 32 counties; but as no statistical account of this kingdom has hitherto been published, we are precluded from presenting our readers with an accurate outline of the different counties; but the following table of the provinces, extracted from the most authentic sources of information, may not be thought uninteresting.

PROVINCES.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. Miles.	Parishes.	Counties.	Market Towns.	Members to Parliament.	Houses.	Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.
Ulster	68	98	6,664	365	9	58	28	289,922	1,739,532	Belfast.
Leinster	104	55	5,720	858	12	36	35	241,702	1,450,212	Dublin.
Connaught	90	80	7,206	330	5	7	12	101,146	606,852	Galway.
Munster	100	107	10,740	740	6	37	25	235,112	1,410,696	Cork.
			30,330	2,293	32	165	100	867,882	*5,207,292	

In our description of the counties in this part of the empire, we shall proceed upon the same plan as that which has already been adopted in our portraiture of England and Scotland.

PROVINCE OF ULSTER.

The nine counties of Ulster are Donegal, Londonderry, Antrim, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Cavan, Monaghan, Armagh, and Downshire.

DONEGAL,

Situated at the north-western extremity of the

island, is nearly 68 miles long, by 36 broad, and is subdivided into 42 parishes. The face of the county is hilly and boggy, with rich vales between the mountains. The linen manufacture has lately been introduced into this county. It sends two members to the imperial parliament. The chief towns are,

1. *Donegal*, the county-town, situated on a spacious bay of the same name, at the mouth of the river Esk, 111 miles from Dublin. The houses are neatly built, and the streets regular, having a very pretty appearance.

* In the tabular view of the United Kingdoms, as prefixed to our general description of the British Empire, we have inserted the population of Ireland at 5,000,000, which we are inclined to think is very near the existing population of the country, and for which some arguments will be found under the article *Population*.

2. *Raphoe*, a neat inland post-town, is the place where the county assizes are held, but contains nothing remarkable.

3. *Ballyshannon*, a sea-port town, situated on the river which flows out of Loch Earne, over which it has a fine bridge of fourteen arches. The town derives its principal consequence from its extensive salmon fishery, and linen manufactory.

LONDONDERRY,

To the east of Donegal, is 32 miles long, and 30 broad, and contains 31 parishes. This is a fruitful and champaign county; and the agriculture throughout has been greatly improved of late years. In various parts there are several extensive linen manufactories, which return upwards of £300,000 annually. This county sends four members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for each of the boroughs of Londonderry and Coleraine. The chief towns are,

1. *Londonderry*, the county-town, and one of the principal places in the north of Ireland, stands at the bottom of Lough Foyle, 147 miles north-west of Dublin. It has a good port, to which ships of the greatest burden have access, and a considerable trade. It was formerly well fortified; and along the banks of the river are several castles, and a fort. Great quantities of salmon, salted and barrelled, are exported from hence to foreign parts. This town was originally built by a company of London adventurers, in the reign of James I. and consists of two principal streets of good houses, which intersect each other; having a handsome exchange, and neat market-house. Here is a wooden bridge of upwards of 1000 feet in length, over the river Mourn. The linen manufactory is here carried on to a great extent.

2. *Coleraine* is a handsome walled town, situated near the mouth of the rapid river Bann, four miles from the sea; and, before the building of Londonderry, it gave name to the county. Here is a valuable salmon fishery. The port is indifferent, owing to the rapidity of the river, which renders the navigation difficult.

ANTRIM,

To the east of Londonderry, is about 46 miles long, and 27 broad, comprehending 56 parishes. The soil is boggy, and the face of the country uninviting, though greatly improved of late. It sends five members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for each of the boroughs of Belfast, Lisburne, and Carrickfergus. The chief places are,

1. *Belfast*, a flourishing sea-port, situated on Carrickfergus Bay, at the mouth of the river Lagan, over which it has a stately bridge of twenty-four

arches; which, including what is called the dead work at each end, is 2562 feet in length. This is the most considerable town in all the province, for extent, wealth, trade, and number of inhabitants. The harbour below the town is commodious. In 1793 a canal was completed with Loch Neagh. The town is well built of brick, with regular and broad streets well paved. It has a large and commodious linen-hall, with a good exchange, and assembly room. The church is a handsome building, but much too small: besides which here are four Dissenting meeting-houses, a Methodist chapel, &c. Belfast has a number of excellent charitable institutions, a public library, insurance office, and several commercial establishments, besides extensive manufactories of cotton, cambric, sail-cloth, and linen, and others of glass, sugar, earthen-ware, &c. Belfast has a large exportation of butter, and salt provisions, which are here collected, and sent to all parts of Europe in time of peace. In 1788 here were 3167 houses, and 18,320 inhabitants; which, in 1809, were supposed to have increased to upwards of 5000 houses, and 30,000 persons.

2. *Lisburne*, a considerable town, is finely situated on the river Lagan, 8 miles south-west of Belfast. The town is mostly composed of new houses, which have not only a neat, but handsome appearance. It is situated in the centre of the linen manufactory, in which the counties of Antrim and Down abound; and the bleach-greens, covered with linen as white as snow, for a considerable extent, have a singular effect. The diaper and table-cloth manufactory at Lisburne, is famous for the quality of the cloth, and beauty of the patterns.

3. *Carrickfergus*, a populous town, formerly walled and fortified, though now much decayed. It has an excellent harbour, defended by a castle, on a high rock. Here the assizes and quarter sessions for the county are held.

TYRONE,

South of Londonderry, is about 45 miles in length, and from 18 to 33 in breadth, comprehending 35 parishes. It contains many mountains, which are very barren; but the vallies and low grounds are fruitful both in corn and pasture. Near Dungannon coals have been found, which are of excellent quality. This county sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the borough of Dungannon. The chief places are,

1. *Omagh*, the county-town, which is a small insignificant place, situated near the centre of the county. It contains nothing remarkable.

2. *Dungannon*, an ancient borough, situated on a hill, 72 miles west of Dublin. It has been considerably

siderably improved of late years, since the discovery of coal in its vicinity.

FERMANAGH,

South west of Tyrone, is about 35 miles long, and 25 broad, containing 19 parishes. It is one of the most unwholesome counties in this province; the greatest part being taken up with bogs, and a large lake, called Lough Earne. This county abounds with flax; and vast herds of black cattle are reared. It sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the borough of Enniskillin. The only town of consequence is,

Enniskillin, the capital of the county, situated on an island in the lake; and, being an important pass, it is well fortified and garrisoned. It is a small neat town, chiefly remarkable for producing a regiment of its name, in the war between King William and James II. in Ireland.

CAVAN,

South east of Fermanagh, is nearly 50 miles long, and 25 broad, containing 30 parishes. In many parts it is open, bleak, and dreary; but, from Cavan to Lough Earne, fertile, well wooded, and cultivated. The climate is healthy; and the linen manufacture is carried on to a great extent. It sends two members to parliament. The chief places are,

1. *Cavan*, the county-town, a mean insignificant place, situated 54 miles north-west of Dublin.

2. *Beltorbet*, a considerable town, situated on the river Earne, and having a navigation into the loch of that name. Some of the houses lately erected are very neat; but in general they are mean and covered with thatch. Here is a great weekly market.

MONAGHAN,

To the north-east of Cavan, is 30 miles long, by 24 broad, and contains 24 parishes. It is a bleak and cold county, consisting chiefly of woody and marshy soil. It sends two members to parliament. The towns are insignificant. The county-town,

Monaghan, is an insignificant place, containing little worthy of notice.

ARMAGH,

To the north-east of Monaghan, is 32 miles long, and 17 broad, and comprehends 35 parishes. This county is in general fertile, the soil being esteemed the richest in Ireland; and has been compared to a highly cultivated garden, intersected by hills, plains, and picturesque lakes: only there is a certain tract in it, called the Fews, which is hilly and barren. It sends three members to parliament,

viz. two for the county, and one for the city of Armagh. The chief places are,

1. *Armagh*, an ancient, and formerly very considerable city, though now much gone to decay. It is the metropolitan archbishop's see of all Ireland. This city has, within a few years, been greatly improved, through the exertions of Archbishop Robinson, who built an hospital and several other public edifices; particularly an observatory, which he endowed with £300 a year. The cathedral has been often burnt and repaired, and is a venerable edifice. In this city one of the greatest linen markets in the province is held.

2. *Charlemont* is a small neat town, situated on the river Blackwater, and received its name from a fort, or mount, built by Charles Blount, lord Mountjoy.

3. *Lurgan* is pleasantly situated on a gentle eminence, in a fertile and populous country, about two miles from, and commanding a prospect of, Lough Neagh, one of the largest lakes in the kingdom. This town, from the similarity of its general figure, of the language, manners, and dispositions of its inhabitants, to those of the English, has, for many years, acquired the name of Little England. The linen manufacture has been carried on to a very great extent, to the vast improvement of the neighbourhood.

DOWNSHIRE,

To the east of Armagh, is upwards of 40 miles long, and 30 broad, containing 72 parishes. The soil is fertile, and the climate very pleasant and agreeable: it is one of the most populous and best cultivated districts in the kingdom. In this county are numerous bleach-greens, and the cottages have a neat appearance, with an orchard to almost every house. It sends four members to parliament, viz. two for the county, and one for each of the boroughs of Down-Patrick and Newry. The chief places are,

1. *Down-Patrick*, the county-town, is situated on the river Newry, 7 miles from the sea, and 74 from Dublin. Near it are the ruins of an ancient cathedral, remarkable for containing the tomb of St. Patrick, its founder, and the titular saint of Ireland. Besides the cathedral, here are several handsome public buildings, as the church, the sessions-house, two alms-houses, two schools, a market house, and barracks for a troop of horse.

2. *Newry* stands near a navigable river of the same name, over which it has two bridges. It is a great thoroughfare, and has of late years so much increased in buildings and shipping, that it is by far the first town in the county. It has a fine linen-hall, and several excellent charitable institutions. The church is a handsome edifice; and here are chapels for the different denominations of Dissenters and Wesleyan Methodists.

3. *Killyleagh*,

3. *Killyleagh* is a small but neat town, and gave birth to that great naturalist and physician, Sir Hans Sloane. Here is a handsome church, a castle, and barracks for a troop of dragoons.

4. *Bangor*, situated on the south shore of *Carrikerfergus* bay, has a considerable manufacture for linen yarn. Here are still seen the ruins of a very ancient abbey.

PROVINCE OF LEINSTER.

The twelve counties which compose the province of Leinster are Dublin, Louth, East Meath, West Meath, Longford, King's County, Queen's county, Kilkenny, Wexford, Carlow, Kildare and Wicklow.

DUBLIN,

Situated on the eastern coast, near the middle of the kingdom, is about 25 miles long, and 16 broad, comprehending 107 parishes. This county, except a mountainous tract in the south part of it, is very populous and fertile, and abounds with all the necessities of life. It sends five members to parliament; viz. two for the county, two for the city of Dublin, and one for the university. The chief place is,

Dublin, the capital of this county and of the whole kingdom, is, in magnitude and the number of its inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions; much about the size of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marseilles. It is situated at the bottom of a large bay, 270 miles north-west of London, and near 60 west of Holyhead in North Wales, the usual station of the passage-vessels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin stands about seven miles from the sea, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almost into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both sides, which form spacious and noble quays, where vessels below the first bridge load and unload before the merchants' doors and warehouses. A stranger, upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about seven miles broad, and in stormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably surprised with the beautiful prospect on each side, and the distant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low situation, makes no very interesting appearance. The Cassoon, a beautiful pharos, or light-house, four or five miles from the city, seems to rise out of the sea; but it is connected with the shore by a broad wall, or pier, on the north side of which vessels of all sizes lie at anchor in safety. On this pier travellers are in general landed; which being at too great a distance from the city for them to walk and carry their luggage, they are accommodated with what is called a *car*, a very low carriage, resembling a sledge,

that goes on two wheels, and is drawn by one horse; it is a most uncomfortable vehicle, but no others are to be procured.

Dublin, in its appearance, bears a near resemblance to London. The houses are of brick; the old streets are narrow and mean, but of late years they have been greatly improved, by widening those that were narrow, and by lighting and paving the whole city: the new streets are as elegant as those of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville street, or, as it is sometimes called, the Mall, is particularly noble; the houses being elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel-walk runs through the whole.

Among the public buildings of this city may first be noticed the church of St. Patrick, or the cathedral, a venerable building, begun about the end of the 12th century; but the steeple, the highest in the city, was not erected till 1376: a lofty spire was added in 1750. St. Werburgh's church has a front and steeple much admired for their elegance, lightness, and symmetry. These are the only two churches that have steeples with spires: the others, eighteen in number, contain little remarkable. Besides the above here are two chapels of ease, fifteen Roman Catholic chapels, a French Protestant, Danish, and Dutch churches, together with numerous meeting-houses for Dissenters of all denominations.

The river Liffey, though navigable for sea vessels as far as the custom house, or centre of the city, is but small when compared with the Thames at London. Over it are two handsome bridges, lately built, of stone, in imitation of that at Westminster, and there are three others that have little to recommend them. Formerly the centre of Dublin, towards the custom house, was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purposes; but of late a new street has been opened, leading from Essex bridge to the castle, where the lord lieutenant resides, which is a very handsome and commodious palace; but its frequent masters are continually making alterations from the original plan. A new exchange was opened in 1779 at the expence of £40,000; it is an elegant structure of white stone, richly embellished with semi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The custom-house is a most magnificent building, having four well built fronts, but all differing a little from each other. The south front, next the river, is of Portland stone; in the centre of which is erected a handsome cupola, ornamented on the top with the figure of Commerce, leaning on her bales and anchor. This building is said to have cost not less than half a million sterling.

The barracks are pleasantly situated on an eminence near the river, and consist of four large courts. They are said to be the largest and most complete

complete buildings of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot, and 1000 horse.

The linen-hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of such linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for sale, for which there are convenient apartments.

Stephen's Green is the most extensive square, round which is a gravel walk of near a mile. Here genteel company walk in the evenings, and on Sundays after two o'clock, and in fine weather make a very gay appearance. Many of the houses round the green are very stately; but a want of uniformity is observable throughout the whole. Ample amends, however, is made for this defect by another spacious square, called Merion Square, which is well laid out and sumptuously built. The houses being lofty, uniform, and carried on with stone as far as the first floor, give the whole an air of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath. Rutland Square, from its lofty trees and handsome walks, situated upon the declivity of a hill, adds much to the beauty of the city. The Phoenix park, which belongs to the crown, takes its name from a lofty pillar of white marble with a phoenix on the top. It is situated at the western extremity of the city, extending about three miles in length, and two in breadth. The Lodge, which is a neat plain brick building, is the summer residence of the lord lieutenant. In this park the reviews are held; and here is the grand salute battery, which is fired on all occasions of public rejoicing. The front of Trinity College, on College Green, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland stone in the finest taste.

The parliament house was begun in 1729, and finished in 1739, at the expence of £40,000. This superb pile was in general of the Ionic order, and was justly accounted one of the foremost architectural beauties. The portico in particular was, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts had also many beauties, and the manner in which the building was lighted has been much admired. This superb building, on the 27th of February, 1792, was observed to be in flames, about five o'clock in the afternoon, when the house of lords, as well as the commons, were sitting, and in full debate. The valuable library, and all the papers of importance, were saved. It has since been rebuilt, and restored to its former elegance and beauty. Since the Union it has been converted into the national bank.

One of the greatest and most laudable undertakings, is the building of a stone wall, about the breadth of a moderate street, of a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to shelter vessels in stormy weather; but since the Union it has been converted to other purposes.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord mayor, &c. the same as in London. Every third year, the lord mayor, and the 24 companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the franchises.

There are two theatres in Dublin; but since an exclusive patent has been obtained, performances are rarely exhibited at more than one of them at a time. There is also the Rotunda, a place of polite resort, resembling Ranelagh.

This city contains many public and laudable institutions. At the west end of the city, on a rising ground, near the river, stands the royal hospital of Kilmainham, for the support of the invalids of the Irish army, founded by king Charles II. on a plan similar to that at Chelsea. The House of Industry is a kind of general workhouse, where upwards of 1700 persons are supported, partly by their own labour, and partly at the public expence. The Old Men's Hospital is a noble institution, affording a comfortable asylum for those whom misfortune has reduced in the decline of life. The Foundling, for children deserted by their parents; and the Magdalen, or Penitentiary, for young women whose ill-conduct deprives them of the protection of their relations; owe their origin to the benevolence of Lady Arabella Denny, who dedicated the whole of her time and fortune to these undertakings. Besides these, there is a Lying-in Hospital, with gardens, built and laid out in the finest taste; an hospital for lunatics, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who himself died a lunatic; and sundry other hospitals, for patients of every description.

The increase of Dublin within these last twenty years is incredible; and it is generally supposed that 7000 houses have been added to the city and suburbs since the reign of queen Anne. The number of houses in the year 1777 was 17,151: they are now estimated at not less than 22,000, and upwards of 190,000 inhabitants.

LOUTH,

To the south of Dublin, is the smallest county in the whole kingdom; being 22 miles long, and 12 broad, comprehending 61 parishes. It has a pleasant and healthy air, and is very fruitful in corn and grass. It sends four members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one each for the boroughs of Drogheda and Dundalk. The chief places are,

1. *Drogheda*, the chief town in this county, is situated near the mouth of the Boyne, about 20 miles from Dublin. It is divided into two parts by the said river, over which there is a plain but convenient bridge. The houses are neatly built, and the streets regular. A considerable trade is

here carried on with Dublin and the neighbouring ports.

2. *Dundalk*, a considerable sea-port, 18 miles north from Drogheda, is most advantageously situated for inland trade, and has a very commodious and safe harbour. The town consists chiefly of a very long open street, with several cross lanes. Here is a neat market-house, and a considerable linen manufactory.

EAST MEATH,

To the west of Louth, is about 30 miles long, and 25 broad, comprehending 147 parishes; it is a very fertile county, abounding in corn, pasture, and herds of cattle. It anciently had petty kings, by whom it was governed. It sends two members to parliament. The only town of note is,

Trim, situated on the river Boyne, remarkable only for being one of the greatest wool fairs in the kingdom.

WEST MEATH

Is so denominated from its situation to the west of the last mentioned. It is 38 miles long, and 21 broad, comprehending 61 parishes. The soil is in general fertile, particularly in pasturage, the greatest attention being paid to the grazing and dairy, farming, and the breeding of sheep. This county sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the borough of Athlone. The chief places are,

1. *Mullingar*, the county-town, and place where the assizes are held, is a neat small place, chiefly remarkable for being, next to Trim, the greatest mart for wool in Ireland.

2. *Athlone*, an inland town of considerable antiquity, is beautifully situated on the river Shannon, over which it has a long bridge of many arches, on which are some badly executed figures and inscriptions, celebrating the success of Queen Elizabeth against the rebellion in her reign. Although this town is so advantageously situated for trade and improvement, being the grand pass from Ulster into Leinster, it yet remains in many parts in a poor, ruinous, and dirty state.

LONGFORD,

To the north-west of Meath, is about 25 miles long, and 16 broad, containing 24 parishes. The soil is very fertile, and the climate pleasant. The river Shannon is its western boundary, along the banks of which much flax is grown. It sends two members to parliament. The chief towns are,

1. *Longford*, a flourishing town situated on the river Cammen, 70 miles north-west of Dublin. The houses are modern, and the streets tolerably built and spacious. Many considerable linen manufactories are established here.

2. *Lanesborough*, a considerable town on the river Shannon, over which it has a bridge leading into Connaught. It is a neat town, having several good houses.

KING'S COUNTY,

To the south of West Meath, is about 30 miles long and 20 broad, comprehending 52 parishes. The soil is tolerably fertile; but in general improvements in agriculture have not made such rapid progress in this as in some of the neighbouring counties. The manufacture of dowlass, sheeting, &c. is in an improving state. This county sends two members to parliament. Its chief places are,

1. *Philip's Town* (so called from Philip II. of Spain, husband to Queen Mary), the assize town of the county, is but a mean insignificant place, containing little worthy particular notice.

2. *Birr*, or *Parson's Town*, is a considerable place on the borders of Tipperary, 63 miles from Dublin. Several of the houses are modern, intermixed with others that are ancient and mean.

QUEEN'S COUNTY,

To the south of King's County, is about 25 miles square, and contains 50 parishes. It was anciently full of bogs, and woody; but it is now fertile and tolerably cultivated. It sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the borough of Port-Arlington. The chief places are,

1. *Maryborough*, the county-town, so called from Mary queen of England, is a small town, containing nothing remarkable.

2. *Port-Arlington* is an ancient town on the borders of King's County, 36 miles south-west of Dublin. The houses are for the most part meanly built; and the place is altogether inconsiderable.

KILKENNY,

South of the last mentioned, is about 35 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 127 parishes. The surface is in general level, and the soil fertile, producing good corn. It is particularly noted for the production of its coal, which makes no smoke in burning, and which, when completely ignited, resembles a mass of melted glass. This county abounds with fine plantations; and, from the purity of the air, is esteemed very healthy. Wool is a considerable branch of trade here. It sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the borough of Kilkenny. The chief places are,

1. *Kilkenny*, the county-town, which took its name from the cell or church of Conic, who was an eminent hermit in this county. It is the see of a bishop, and is divided into the English and Irish towns. Both together make one of the

the largest, most wealthy, populous, and trading towns in the kingdom. The houses are decorated with a beautiful black and white marble, found in the neighbourhood, and polished by mills worked by water, with which the streets of the town are also paved. Over the river Nore, on which this place is situated, are two handsome bridges. The walks along the side of the river, are singularly beautiful, and have a fine view of the college, originally founded by James, Duke of Ormond, in 1682. The present elegant fabric was erected in 1784, at the expence of £5000, granted by parliament. The number of students is about 70, 50 of whom are boarded in the house. The presentation of the master is in the gift of the provost and senior fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. At the top of the town is a very handsome asylum for 20 decayed female housekeepers, who are allowed coals, candles, and £16 per annum each. The cathedral is a fine old Gothic structure, with a curious round tower. The principal manufactures carried on here are chiefly those of coarse woollens, fine blankets of extraordinary good quality, and starch. It contains about 2500 houses, and 17,000 inhabitants.

2. *Leighlin*, or *Old Leighlin*, formerly a considerable city and bishopric, is now much gone to decay. Its cathedral is still used as the parish church.

WEXFORD,

South-east of Kilkenny, is about 40 miles long, and 20 broad, containing 109 parishes. Though not in general mountainous, this county contains a considerable proportion of coarse, cold land, and stiff clay; but other parts are very fertile, producing excellent grass and corn. It sends four members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one each for Wexford and New Ross. The chief places are,

1. *Wexford*, a fine sea-port, situated at the mouth of the river Slaney, 63 miles from Dublin. It was once reckoned the chief city in Ireland; being the first colony of the English; and it is still an extensive and handsome town, having a beautiful and commodious harbour, but will only admit vessels of small burden. In the town and neighbourhood are several extensive woollen manufactures. The inhabitants, about 9000 in number, still retain traces of their British origin, being a distinct people from the native Irish.

2. *Ross*, or *New Ross*, a populous and thriving town upon the river Barrow, which is navigable for large vessels up to the quays, and forms an excellent harbour. The houses are modern, and the streets spacious.

CARLOW,

To the north-west of Wexford, is nearly 30 miles long, and 20 broad, comprehending 50 parishes. The western part of the county consists of rough and high hills; but the other parts are rich and fertile. It sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the borough of Carlow. The chief places are,

1. *Carlow*, the county town, is very pleasantly situated on the east side of the river Barrow, by which it has a connexion with Waterford river and the great canal. The town is very neat, and, from the whiteness of the houses, has a very pretty effect. Here is a fine old castle over-hanging the river. The Roman Catholics have a neat seminary here. A considerable quantity of butter is exported from hence to England, where it is in great estimation.

2. *Leighlin Bridge*, a considerable town on the Barrow, which carries on an extensive trade with Waterford in the products of the county.

KILDARE,

To the north of Carlow, is about 33 miles long, and from 10 to 21 broad. It is a very fine, pleasant, and arable county, and sends two members to parliament. The chief places are,

1. *Kildare*, the county-town, pleasantly situated on a rising ground, 27 miles south-west of Dublin. It is noted principally on account of the celebrated *curragh*, or race course, which is not unfrequently termed, the Newmarket of Ireland. The races are held in April, June, September, and October. This town contains the remains of several religious foundations: and here is a round tower in good preservation, 130 feet high, built of white granite and blue stone. The door is 14 feet above the ground.

2. *Nuas*, a post-town, situated on the great road between Dublin and Cork, near the grand canal, 15 miles from Dublin. It was formerly celebrated as the residence of the kings of Ireland. Many of the houses evince the dreadful effects of the rebellion in 1798.

3. *Athy*, a neat town pleasantly situated on the river Barrow, 32 miles from Dublin. The houses are modern, and the streets tolerably spacious. Here is a canal to Dublin, on which passage boats daily pass to and from that city.

WICKLOW,

To the west of Kildare, is about 30 miles long, and from 15 to 25 broad, comprehending 50 parishes. This is a very mountainous county, but it has a clear and wholesome air; and the low lands are well cultivated. Between the mountains are some of those deep dark vallies, called *glynns*, which

are very beautiful and picturesque, together with some grand and astonishing water-falls. It sends two members to parliament. The chief places are,

1. *Wicklow*, which gives name to the county, is remarkable for producing the best ale in the kingdom. It has barracks for three companies of foot, and a kind of castle and haven at the mouth of the river *Leitrim*. The harbour is good; and it carries on a considerable coasting trade.

2. *Arklow* is a thriving town situated at the mouth of a small river in the southern part of the county. It has a considerable coasting trade.

PROVINCE OF CONNAUGHT.

The province of Connaught comprehends the counties of *Leitrim*, *Sligo*, *Roscommon*, *Mayo*, and *Galway*.

LEITRIM,

To the south-west of the province of Ulster, is about 42 miles long, and from 10 to 16 broad, comprehending 21 parishes. The northern parts are mountainous, but afford grazing feed for vast herds of cattle: the southern parts are level, and the soil fertile. The linen manufacture has been introduced, and is rapidly increasing the population of this county and the whole province. The land is in general well cultivated. Some considerable iron works have been lately established in this county, which abounds with lakes and small rivers. It sends two members to parliament. The chief places are,

1. *Leitrim*, from which the county is named, situated on the river *Shannon*, was formerly a large town, but is now greatly decayed.

2. *Carrick-on-Shannon*, the county-town, is but an inconsiderable place at present; though the introduction of the linen manufacture, no doubt, will greatly improve it.

SLIGO,

To the south-west of *Leitrim*, is about 25 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, containing 39 parishes. The soil in various parts is very different: where it is free from bogs, it is fit either for pasture or tillage, and of late years has been much improved. It sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the borough of *Sligo*.

Sligo, the only town of note in the county, is pleasantly situated at the estuary of a river into a bay of the same name, 100 miles from Dublin. This town has a considerable trade, and is greatly improved of late. The harbour is excellent; vessels of 1200 tons burden being able to unload at the quays. The houses are in general mean, intermixed with several of modern erection; in

1788 they amounted to 916, with near 8000 inhabitants, which are now supposed to exceed 10,000.

ROSCOMMON,

To the south of *Sligo*, is 45 miles long, and from 10 to 25 broad. It is a very fruitful county, and yields plenty of excellent corn and grass; yet there are some extensive bogs. The face of the country is level, having no hills of note. It sends two members to parliament. The chief places are,

1. *Roscommon*, the county-town, 69 miles west of Dublin, a very insignificant place, containing nothing remarkable.

2. *Boyle*, a flourishing town, situated on the river *Boyle*, 84 miles from Dublin. It has a handsome stone bridge of several arches over the river. In 1786 it had only 1000 inhabitants; but its extensive linen markets, and the great manufactories in the neighbourhood, have greatly increased it. A great quantity of yarn is also made in its vicinity.

MAYO,

To the west of *Roscommon* and *Sligo*, is about 50 miles long, and 40 broad, comprehending 68 parishes. The western coast is mountainous and boggy, and the climate moist and cold, which makes it thinly inhabited; but the interior produces excellent pasturage, and in some parts is well cultivated. It sends two members to parliament. The chief places are,

1. *Castlebar*, a populous town, situated near the centre of the county, is the place where the assizes are held. It has extensive linen and woollen manufactories.

2. *Killala*, a small sea-port in the north of the county, has a little trade, and is an improving place.

GALWAY,

To the south of *Mayo*, is one of the largest counties in Ireland, being about 180 miles long, and 40 broad, comprehending 116 parishes. The greater part of it is fertile; the soil being a warm lime-stone, and extremely productive. Toward the north and west, however, the soil is very coarse, and the country very thinly peopled. It sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for *Galway*. The chief places are,

1. *Galway*, pleasantly and advantageously situated for foreign trade, on a bay of the Atlantic Ocean. It is surrounded with strong walls, and contains several large and regular streets; the houses are generally well built of stone. The parish church is a beautiful large Gothic structure. The town also contains a neat exchange, an hospital,

pital, a charter-house, and extensive barracks for foot-soldiers. The salmon and herring fisheries are here carried on with great spirit and success, and employ several hundred boats. The making and exporting of kelp forms another considerable branch of its trade; and of late the linen manufacture has been introduced. It is governed by a mayor, sheriffs, recorder, &c. Several religious houses were formerly in this town. Most of the houses have the gable end next the street.

2. *Tuam*, an archbishop's see, was formerly a considerable city, but is now a mean inconsiderable place.

PROVINCE OF MUNSTER.

This province comprehends the counties of Clare, Limerick, Kerry, Cork, Tipperary, and Waterford.

CLARE,

To the south of Galway, is about 45 miles long and 25 broad, comprehending 79 parishes. It is chiefly a grazing and breeding county, producing more horses than any other in the kingdom, with abundance of black cattle and sheep. It sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the borough of Ennis. The chief places are,

1. *Ennis*, or *Clare* (as it is sometimes called), situated on the river Fergus, which is navigable for large boats from the Shannon, and which adds greatly to the trade of the town, is tolerably large, populous, and well built; in distance 112 miles south-west of Dublin.

2. *Killaloe*, an ancient city on the river Shannon, over which it has a handsome stone bridge of 19 arches, has a considerable salmon and eel fishery. Here is a superb palace, belonging to the bishop of that see.

LIMERICK,

To the south of Clare, is about 40 miles long, and from 15 to 25 broad, comprehending 125 parishes. The south-east and west parts of this county are mountainous and unproductive, while the rest is fertile and pleasant. It sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the city of Limerick. The chief places are,

1. *Limerick*, a rich and flourishing city, 50 miles north of Cork, and 94 south-west of Dublin. It was formerly reckoned the second city in the kingdom; but, since the rapid increase of Cork, it has lost its pre-eminence, not from any decay in its trade, but because that of Cork has flourished more rapidly. It stands upon the river Shannon, which is navigable up to the quays, though full 60 miles from the sea. It is a county of itself,

and divided into the Irish and the English towns, the latter of which stands upon an island in the river, which is joined to the main land by a bridge. The Irish, or Old Town, is dirty and disagreeable; while the other is handsomely built, with several elegant streets and noble and spacious quays. The commerce of this city is very extensive, having a considerable number of ships in the West India, American, Baltic, and Turkish trades. The linen, woollen, and paper manufactures are here carried on to a great extent; it has also a considerable trade in the exportation of provisions. The cathedral is venerable for its antiquity, but heavy and gloomy. Besides which, here are three other churches, and several neat chapels for different Dissenters. The exchange is a neat building, supported by seven Tuscan columns. Here are several handsome public buildings, with many excellent hospitals and charitable institutions. Limerick is computed to contain about 5000 houses, and 40,000 inhabitants.

2. *Askeaton*, a neat market-town, situated on the small river Deal, near its junction with the Shannon. It is chiefly noted for its abbey, which is one of the most perfect in the United Kingdom.

KERRY,

To the south-west of Limerick, is about 50 miles long, and 40 broad, comprehending 84 parishes. It contains several excellent harbours; and the southern district is fertile and pleasant, but a large part of it is full of mountains, almost inaccessible, so that little corn is produced; and grazing is the chief management of the farmer. It sends three members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one for the borough of Tralee. The chief places are,

1. *Tralee*, the county-town, situated on a bay, 144 miles south-west of Dublin. It is tolerably well built, but has no manufacture of consequence. The harbour is but indifferent, not allowing vessels to come within one mile of the town. Here is an extensive herring fishery.

2. *Killarney*, a neat town, situated on a beautiful lake of the same name, near the centre of the county. Many of the houses are handsome; and here is a noble Catholic school.

3. *Dingle* is an ancient town, built in the Spanish style, on a fine bay in the Atlantic Ocean. It was founded by a colony of Spanish emigrants, who left their native country on account of religious persecution, and settled in this place.

CORK,

To the east of Kerry, is by far the largest county in the kingdom, being upwards of 80 miles long, and 50 broad. Though a considerable part is mountainous and boggy, yet, by the industry of

the inhabitants; it is well cultivated and greatly improved, producing excellent corn, vegetables, &c. It contains several large towns, and upwards of 230 villages, with 76,739 houses, and 416,000 inhabitants. It sends eight members to parliament; viz. two for the county, two for the city of Cork, and one each for the boroughs of Kinsale, Bandon, Youghall, and Mallow. The chief places are,

1. *Cork*, 124 miles south-west of Dublin, an ancient city, the second in the kingdom, is situated on a marshy island, environed by the river Lee, which discharges itself into the ocean about ten miles below. The buildings are extremely crowded and irregular, and the streets badly paved; though, for trade and commerce, it far exceeds any other city in Ireland, vessels coming up to the town. Of late years it has been much improved and enlarged: several broad and new streets having been recently built by filling up the channels that formerly run through them; and it now contains some elegant houses. The parade is very spacious, and ornamented with fine buildings. The magnificent cathedral was built from its foundation between 1725 and 1735, and is a fine Gothic structure. Here are, besides, seven handsome parish churches, and chapels for most of the descriptions of Christians; together with an elegant exchange, a new and beautiful custom-house, a town-hall, several fine hospitals, and various other public structures. Upon an island on one side of the harbour, is a very strong fort, which renders the port perfectly secure. The barracks are upon an immense scale, being very fine buildings, erected on a rocky mountain, which commands the town. Cork is the see of a bishop, who has a neat palace here. The principal export trade is in salt provisions; and, during the slaughtering season, it is supposed, that not less than 100,000 head of black cattle are killed. Its other exports are pork, tallow, hides, butter, candles, wool, yarn, and worsted; and it is supposed that there are not less than 700 coopers employed in making barrels of beech or oak. There are two stone bridges over the Lee, and on one of them a statue of George II. on horseback. The environs of Cork are extremely beautiful, rising into gentle hills, studded with seats, gardens, and plantations. The harbour, or cove of Cork, seven miles below the town, is deep and spacious, capable of holding the largest ships and most extensive fleets. The entrance is easy and secure; one side is formed by an island four miles long, and two broad, very pleasant and fertile. This is a great rendezvous of the large East and West India fleets, who are plentifully supplied with salt provisions. This city is said to contain nearly 10,000 houses, and 100,000 inhabitants.

2. *Kinsale*, the Plymouth of Ireland, situated on the river Bandon, 14 miles south-west of Cork. It

is a very populous and commercial place, particularly in the making up of all sorts of ship provisions. The harbour is safe, secure, and commodious; with extensive dock yards, where ships of war are sometimes repaired, and a crane for shipping heavy artillery. The town is neat, well built, and defended by a fort, built in the reign of Charles II. at the expence of £70,000. Considerable quantities of grain are exported from this place; which contains upwards of 20,000 inhabitants.

3. *Bandon*, or *Bandon-bridge*, so called from a fine bridge over the river Bandon, 13 miles from Cork, and 136 from Dublin. This town was erected in 1610 in the midst of an impassable bog; and was at first peopled by Protestants. Here are extensive manufactories of cotton, camlets, ticking, &c. The houses are neat and modern, with handsome and spacious streets. During the late rebellion it was made a military station, and is at present strongly garrisoned. The inhabitants are about 12,000.

4. *Youghall*, a considerable sea-port on the borders of Waterford, at the mouth of the river Blackwater, 25 miles from Cork. It has a commodious harbour and handsome quay, having a great export trade and good market.

5. *Mallow*, a considerable inland town, 14 miles north of Cork, having several considerable linen manufactories, and a small spring of clear water, resembling those of the Hot Wells of Bristol. The houses are modern; and here is a fully attended market, well supplied with all sorts of provisions.

TIPPERARY,

To the north-east of Cork, is about 52 miles in length, and from 10 to 30 in width, comprehending 147 parishes. The southern parts are extremely fertile, and furnished with good building, but the north is mountainous and barren. The principal products are cattle, sheep, butter, and flour. It sends four members to parliament; viz. two for the county, and one each for the city of Cashell and the borough of Clonmell. The chief places are,

1. *Clonmell*, a neat and improving town, pleasantly situated on the river Suir, and on the high road from Dublin to Cork. The river is navigable from hence to Waterford, and the town has a considerable trade in the woollen branch, particularly by the Quakers, who are very numerous here. The town consists of four cross streets, and has a spacious bridge of 20 arches across the river. The market-house is a well-built edifice, and it has a charter-school for 20 children.

2. *Cashell*, an ancient city, three miles from the Suir, was the original residence of the kings of Munster, and formerly surrounded with walls, part of which are still remaining. The old cathedral appears

appears to have been an extensive Gothic structure. The city is tolerably well-built, having a fine market-house, a neat sessions-house, county infirmary, and a barrack. The archbishop's palace is plain, but commodious; and the church is a new neat building. Cashell may be said to contain upwards of 600 houses and 5000 inhabitants.

3. *Carrick-on-Suir*, so called from its situation on the river Suir, is a large and populous town, though very irregularly built, for many years past remarkable for its woollen manufactures.

WATERFORD,

To the south-east of Tipperary; is 45 miles long, and 25 broad, containing 34 parishes. It presents a great diversity of soil and prospect, but is generally pleasant and fertile, producing excellent corn and pasturage; yet in many parts it is mountainous, interspersed with huge rocks and precipices. It sends four members to parliament; viz. two for the county, one for the city of Waterford, and one for the borough of Dungarvon. The chief places are,

1. *Waterford*, a large and populous town, first built by certain pirates of Norway, which has been a bishop's see ever since the year 1096. The streets are narrow and confined, and the air reckoned unhealthy; but, notwithstanding this, till it was eclipsed by Cork and Limerick, it was accounted the second city in the kingdom for trade, wealth, and population, being situated on a fine harbour, and defended on the east side by Duncannon fort. Here is a fine cathedral, but it is greatly surpassed in appearance by an elegant new church. The city carries on a great trade, particularly with England, in provisions of all kinds; and ships of burden come up close to its quay, which is one of the finest in Europe. The haven extends near eight miles, almost in a straight line, and is but little encumbered with rocks or sands. The city, and its liberties, make a distinct county, and contain about 95,000 inhabitants. Packet-boats sail regularly betwixt Waterford and Milford-haven.

2. *Dungarvon*, a tolerably well-built sea-port town; situated on a bay of the same name, with a commodious harbour. It has a fine market-place, with a neat sessions-house. The markets of Dublin are supplied with immense quantities of fish from this place.

3. *Lisamore*, formerly an ancient city, seated on the river Blackwater, over which it has a fine stone bridge. A bishop's see was erected here in the seventh century, but it was afterwards united to Waterford. The cathedral, which is spacious and handsome, is well worthy the attention of every admirer of architecture. The chief trade of this place is derived from its salmon fishery, which is very extensive.

SECTION II.

Climate and Seasons—Soil, Face of the Country, Agriculture—Mountains—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Rivers—Lakes—Canals—Forests—Natural Curiosities—Antiquities—Manners and Customs of the People—Population—Commerce and Manufactures—Language—Learning, and Learned Men—Religion—Revenues—Laws, Constitution and Government, &c.

Climate and Seasons.—Ireland lying nearly in the same parallel of latitude as England, the difference of climate cannot be supposed to be very important. The seasons are generally moister in this country than in England; but the inconveniences formerly attending the effects of the atmosphere are much removed of late by the liberal improvements that have taken place in agriculture. The summers are cooler, and the winters less severe than in England; sharp frosts, deep snows, and thunder and lightning, being seldom experienced. The mean temperature of the north is about 48, of the middle 50, and of the south 52 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

Soil, Face, of the Country, and Agriculture.—The soil of Ireland is so various as to be capable of almost every species of cultivation suitable to such a latitude, with a fertility equal to its variety. It has been observed, by Mr. Young, that "natural fertility, acre for acre, over the two countries, is certainly in favour of Ireland; of this there can scarcely be a doubt entertained, when it is considered that some of the more beautiful and even best cultivated counties in England owe almost every thing to the art and industry of its inhabitants." Mr. Young also says:—"The circumstance which strikes me as the greatest singularity of Ireland, is the rockiness of the soil, which should seem, at first sight, against that degree of fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is so general, that I have good reason to believe the whole island is one vast rock of different strata and kinds, rising out of the sea. I have rarely heard of any great depths being sunk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the surface in every part of the kingdom, the flattest and most fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almost as much as the more barren ones. May we not recognize in this the hand of bounteous Providence, which has given, perhaps, the most stony soil in Europe to the moistest climate in it? If as much rain fell upon the clays in England (a soil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much stone), as falls upon the rocks of her sister island, those lands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure; those of limestone, with only a thin covering

covering of mould, have the softest and most beautiful turf imaginable.

"The rockiness of the soil in Ireland is so universal that it predominates in every sort. One cannot use with propriety the terms clay, loam, sand, &c.; it must be a stony clay, a stony loam, a gravelly sand. Clay, especially the yellow, is much talked of in Ireland, but it is from want of proper discrimination. I have once or twice seen almost a pure clay upon the surface; but it is extremely rare. The true yellow clay is usually found in a thin stratum, under the surface-mould, and over a rock; harsh, tenacious, stony, strong loams, difficult to work, are not uncommon, but they are quite different from English clays.

"Friable sandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the best soil in the kingdom for tillage and sheep. Tipperary and Roscommon abound particularly in them. The most fertile of all are the bullock pastures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon, in Clare, called the Corcasses. These are a mellow, putrid, friable loam. Sand, which is so common in England, and yet more common through France, Germany, and Poland, quite from Gibraltar to Petersburgh, is nowhere met with in Ireland, except in narrow slips of hillocks, upon the sea-coast. Nor did I ever meet with or hear of a chalky soil.

"Besides the great fertility of the soil, there are other circumstances which come within my sphere to mention. Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers; and it is remarkable, that by much the finest parts of the kingdom are on the banks of these rivers, which wash a scenery that can hardly be exceeded.

"The hills of Ireland give to travelling that interesting variety which a flat country can never abound with; and, at the same time, they are not in such number as to confer the character of poverty which usually attends them.

"The soil, though rocky, is extremely fertile, perhaps beyond that of England itself, when properly cultivated. Pasturage, tillage, and meadow-ground, abound in this kingdom; but, till of late, tillage was too much discountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all kinds of grain. Indeed agriculture, as a science, is at present little understood; for, even in the best corn counties, turnips and clover are almost unknown. In some of the northern parts of the kingdom, abundance of hemp and flax are raised; a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vast numbers of black cattle and sheep; and the Irish wool is excellent. The prodigious supplies of butter and salt provisions (fish excepted), shipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, afford the strongest proofs of the natural fertility of the Irish soil.

The bogs of Ireland are very extensive; that of Allen extending 80 miles, and containing 300,000 acres. There are others also which are of considerable size, and smaller ones scattered all over the kingdom; but they are not thought to be, in general, more than are wanted for fuel. An immense quantity of timber is from time to time discovered in these bogs, at great depths, though in a perfectly sound state; and the moisture in these morasses has the property of converting into a kind of leather the skins of men and animals who have had the misfortune of being lost and remaining in them any length of time. Ornaments of gold and silver have frequently been discovered, together with several curious relics of antiquity, which seems to indicate that they are comparatively but of recent foundation.

Mountains.—It has been observed that the Irish language is more happy in distinguishing the size of mountains than almost any other. A *knock* signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; a *slieve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually ascending and continued in several ridges; a *bienn*, or *bin*, signifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. Ireland, however, when compared with some other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among some of the highest in the kingdom; of which Slick Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of upwards of 3000 feet. Mungerton, near the lake of Killarney, is 2500 feet; and a row of twelve mountains in the north of Tipperary, called *Phelém-dhe-Madina*, are upwards of 2800. Besides these, several others might be enumerated; but, perhaps, the most concise and accurate description of this particular has been presented by a modern satirist and dramatic writer, who compares the surface of this kingdom to a basket of potatoes, which, though rough and uneven in its surface, has few parts rising extraordinarily higher than the rest.

Animals.—Ireland was formerly overrun with wolves and other wild animals, which were not finally exterminated till the middle of the 17th century; and in many of the bogs the horns of that extraordinarily large quadruped, the mouse-deer, are frequently dug up. At present, however, its zoology differs in hardly any respects from that of England. Of late years considerable attention has been paid to the breeding and rearing of the black cattle and sheep, which, for size and flavour, are inferior to none in the United Kingdom. In some parts of the country herds of red deer are still found wild, particularly on the mountains near Lake Killarney. The great wolf-dogs, a breed peculiar to Ireland, are now very scarce; they have the

the appearance of a greyhound, being full four feet in height. Whether it be owing to the soil or the climate has not been ascertained, but it is certain, that in Ireland there are neither moles, toads, adders, serpents, nor any poisonous animals; and it is not above 100 years since frogs were introduced (by way of experiment to see if they would propagate) from England, of which the country now swarms. The nightingale, magpie, and several other English birds, are strangers here; and the former bird, it is said, if brought over in a cage, will pine and die. The fish are excellent and abundant; but several sorts that are found in England are here unknown.

Vegetables.—There is little difference between the vegetable productions of England and Ireland. Few countries produce better or fuller grain than is to be met with in all parts of the island where its culture is attended to. Great quantities of hemp and flax are now raised, particularly within the last two years; since the misunderstanding with the United States of America was likely, in its consequences, to have essentially injured the linen manufacture. Several experiments have recently been made on marshy and boggy land, which, with very little preparation, is found to answer admirably; and this at first seeming difficulty will, no doubt, ultimately prove of incalculable national benefit. Potatoes, as is well known, seem especially to suit the soil of this country, and are a particular object of cultivation in all parts of the kingdom.

Metals and Minerals.—Ireland contains mines of lead, iron, copper, silver, and gold. A mine of the latter metal has been discovered within these few years in the county of Wicklow: it is now worked for government; and a very rich vein has recently been met with. The silver mine in the county of Antrim is said to yield a pound of pure silver from 30 pounds of lead. A copper and lead mine have been discovered at Tipperary; as likewise iron ore; and excellent free-stone for building. In one part of the kingdom is a stream of water, very much impregnated with copper, which yields great quantities of that metal. Some of the Irish marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most of the counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little smoke; and it contains a crystalline stream which has no sediment. Those peculiarities, with the serenity of the air in that place, have given rise to the saying, "that Kilkenny contains fire without smoke, water without mud, and air without fog." Extensive iron works have been lately established at Arigna, in Leitrim.

Rivers, &c.—This island abounds with a number of beautiful and fertilizing rivers, affording the

most delightful and picturesque scenery. The principal is the Shannon, one of the largest in the United Kingdom, which, issuing from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, serves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces; and, after a course of 150 miles, forming in its progress many beautiful lakes, falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a considerable ridge of rocks which run across it, near the city of Killaloe: this, it is said, might easily be remedied by a very short canal, which would render this beautiful river navigable to its source, there being no other hindrance whatever. The Bann falls into the ocean near Coleraine; the Boyne falls into St. George's Channel, at Drogheda; as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a spacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the south part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their streams below Ross, fall into the Channel at Waterford Haven. The Slaney falls into the Irish Sea at Wexford. The Blackwater rises among the mountains of Kerry; and, after traversing the county of Cork in a westerly direction, turns full south, and falls into the Atlantic below Youghall. The Bandon, in the same county, takes nearly a similar direction. The estuaries of these and other rivers into the sea form a great number of excellent bays and harbours; the most considerable are those of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvon, Cork, Kinsale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannon-mouth, Galway, Sligo, and Donegal.

Lakes.—Ireland contains a great number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, *loughs*, some of which are very extensive. The largest, of fresh water, is that of Earne, in the county of Fermanagh, which exceeds 30 miles in length, and is 12 in its greatest breadth. The great Lough Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, Armagh, and Londonderry, is full 20 miles long, and 15 broad, comprehending an area of 100,000 acres. It is remarkable for its healing virtues in schrophulous cases, and its strong petrifying quality, which is imparted to the adjacent soil for a considerable depth. It abounds with fish, and has a communication with the sea, by the navigable river Bann. There is only one island throughout the whole of its surface, on which there is a round tower. In stormy weather this lake is greatly agitated, the waves running mountains high. Lough Foyle, in the county of Derry, is a large inlet of the sea, upon one arm of which the city of Londonderry stands. This lake, though narrow at the entrance, is sufficiently deep for vessels of the largest burden.

In the summer season it is visited by immense shoals of herrings. Lough Corrab, in the county of Galway, is upwards of 20 miles long, and in some places 6 broad; it contains several beautiful islands. But one of the most beautiful and picturesque lakes in the universe is that of Killarney, in the county of Kerry. It is entirely surrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immense declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with evergreens, from near their tops to the lakes themselves; among which are a number of rivulets rolling over the precipices, some from heights of little less than 300 feet; forming altogether a most beautiful and romantic prospect. On the top of one of the surrounding mountains is a small round lake, about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch Bowl; from the surface of which to the top of the cavity is about 300 yards; and, when viewed from the circular top, it has a most astonishing appearance. The depth of it, though great, is not unfathomable, as the natives pretend. The discharge of the superfluous water of this bowl, through a chasm into the middle lake, forms one of the finest cascades in the world, visible for 150 yards. The echoes among the hills surrounding the southern parts of the lake, which is mostly inclosed, are equally delightful and astonishing. The earl of Kenmore having placed some cannon in the most proper places, for the amusement of travellers, the discharge is tremendous, resembling the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which seems to travel the surrounding scenery, and die away among the distant mountains. Musical instruments, especially the horn and trumpet, also afford the most delightful entertainment, and raise a concert superior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vast and craggy heights which surround the lake, is one stupendous and frightful rock, the front of which, towards the water, is a most horrid precipice, called the *eagle's nest*, from the number of those birds which have their nests there. Besides the above, there are several other lakes, to enter into a particular description of which would far exceed our limits.

Canals.—The inland navigation of Ireland has, within the last fifty years, been considerably attended to. By the Newry canal, a communication has been opened between Lough Neagh and Carlingford bay; and by the Lisburne canal, between the same lake and the bay of Carrickfergus. The two great canals, called the Royal and Grand Canal, join the river Liffey, on which Dublin is situated, with the Shannon and the Suir, by which a communication is opened by water carriage with the cities of Limerick and Waterford. The difficulties encountered in carrying the above canal over bogs, morasses, and mountains are almost incredible.

Forests.—This island formerly was covered with extensive forests, hardly any of which now remain, having been either rooted up for the extension of tillage, and partly by the consumption of fuel for domestic uses, in a country where, till of late years, no coal was discovered. The chief that remain lie in Leinster, in the King's and Queen's counties, in Wexford and Carlow, in Ulster and Donegall, and in the north part of Tyrone; also in the county of Fermanagh, along Lough Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is some good timber. The oak is esteemed as good as any of the English growth.

Natural Curiosities.—The greatest natural curiosity in this island is the Giant's Causeway, in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, respecting which Dr. Pococke, bishop of Ossory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary, says, "that he measured the most westerly point at high water, to the distance of 360 feet from the cliff; but he was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet farther upon a descent, till it was lost in the sea. Upon measuring the eastern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and saw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the sea, and is, like that, lost in the water.

"The causeway is composed of pillars, all of angular shapes, from three sides to eight. The eastern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright sides of the pillars, some of which are 33 feet 4 inches high. Each pillar consists of several joints of stones, lying one upon another, from six inches to about one foot in thickness; and, what is very surprising, some of these joints are so convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of spheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greatest firmness, every stone being concave on the other side, and fitting in the exactest manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally consist of about forty joints, most of which separate very easily; and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as the edge of the water,

"But this is not the most singular part of this extraordinary curiosity, the cliffs themselves being still more surprising. From the bottom, which is of black stone, to the height of about 60 feet, they are divided at equal distances by stripes of reddish stone, that resembles a cement, about four inches in thickness; upon this there is another stratum of the same black stone, with a stratum of five inches thick of the red. Over this is another stratum, ten feet thick, divided in the same manner; then a stratum of the red stone 20 feet deep, and above that a stratum of upright pillars; above these pillars lies another stratum of black stone, 20 feet high;

high; and above this again, another stratum of upright pillars, rising in some places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not so high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of these cliffs extends about three English miles."

Another natural curiosity is the Dargle, about 12 miles to the south of Dublin, an enchanting glen, finely wooded with oak, and nearly a mile in length, with high precipices, and a picturesque river. In the neighbourhood of Mitchelstown, at the foot of the Galtee Mountains, is a cave, in a limestone rock, the entrance of which is narrow; but, from a vault of about 100 feet long, and 50 or 60 in height, there extends a winding course, of not less than half an Irish mile, exhibiting great variety of appearances, with incrustations of spar, nearly as brilliant as the Bristol crystals. Mr. Young thinks more highly of this cave than of that of the Peak in Derbyshire.

Near the city of Cork there is a vast subterranean cavern, called the Oven, the extent of which has never been explored, though persons have advanced into it to the distance of a quarter of a mile or more.

But the most celebrated cavern in Ireland is that of Dunmore, near the city of Kilkenny. It has only been explored as far as a subterranean river, which runs through it about a quarter of a mile from its entrance, where is a difficult descent of 100 feet. The inside of the cavern, when strongly illuminated, has a grand and sublime effect.

At Adragoel, on Bantry Bay, is one of the finest cataracts in Europe. On the top of a rocky mountain, which rises almost perpendicularly, is a lake of considerable size, from which issues a fine sheet of water; at first 50 feet wide, but which considerably widens as it descends; and, dashing from rock to rock, forms a series of falls, till it is magnificently projected, in the form of an arch, over a lower hill into the sea, from so stupendous a height as to be visible 14 miles distant, at the town of Bantry.

Antiquities.—The chief objects of antiquity in this part of the United Kingdom are the pharos, or round towers, in almost every part of the country, which greatly resemble that of which a description has been given in our account of Brechin, in Scotland. They are in general about 80 feet high, built with large square stones, with a door near six yards from the ground, without steps or any means of ascent: towards the top are four small oblong holes to admit the light. It is generally supposed they were built by the Danes; but nothing is certain as to their object or use: some supposing they were erected as a kind of protection by these piratical marauders; while others think they were applied to some religious purpose,

as they are always situated near a church. In many of the church-yards curious stone crosses are frequently dug up, embellished with brass relics of saints and angels.

Manners and Customs of the People.—There is no subject that has been so variously stated as the manners and customs of the ancient Irish. If we make our enquiries into this particular among English writers, we find their representations odious and disgusting; but if we trace their own writings, we meet with the most flattering encomiums on the knowledge and skill of their great ancestors. Which of these statements is the true one, it is not so necessary for us to determine, as our more immediate province is to present a portraiture of their descendants, the present inhabitants.

The lower classes are generally represented as a rude, uncivilized, and blundering sort of people. Impatient of abuse and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehension, courteous to strangers, and patient of hardship. Personal comeliness seems to be more generally diffused in England among the lower classes than in Ireland; which may, however, be attributed to the mere modes of living. In England, the meanest cottager is better fed, and better clothed, than the most opulent farmer here; who, unaccustomed to what our peasants call the comforts of life, knows no luxury except in large potations of aqua vitæ, to which on extraordinary occasions a little whiskey is added. The officers of the British army, who have been in Ireland on the recruiting service, affirm, that the young fellows who offer to enlist are more frequently below the given height than in England. There can be no appeal from this testimony, which may be looked upon as decisive; and it can only be accounted for from the different modes of living. The gentry and better sort of the people are generally tall and well proportioned.

The inhabitants of this part of the United Kingdom are far from what they have been unjustly represented by travellers of our own nation. Miserable and oppressed as by far too many of them are, an Englishman will find as much civility in general as among the same class in his own country; and, for a small pecuniary consideration, they will exert themselves to please you as much as any people on earth. Poverty and oppression will naturally make men sour, rude, and unsociable; and eradicate, or at least suppress, all the more amiable principles and passions of humanity: and it is unfair to judge of or decide against the natural dispositions of men reduced by indigence and oppression almost to desperation. Let but the effects of the Union be a little longer tried; let agriculture, commerce, and arts, but call forth the dormant activity of their genius, and rouse the native spirit of enterprise,

terprise, which even now to a great extent lies torpid within them; let liberal laws unfetter their minds, and plenty cheer their tables; and they will then shew themselves deserving to rank with the most respectable societies in Europe.

"The lower Irish," says a modern traveller, "are remarkable for their ingenuity and docility, and a quick conception. It is curious to see with what scanty materials they will work; they build their own cabins, and make bridles, stirrups, cruppers, and ropes for every domestic use, from hay; and British adjutants allow that Irish recruits are sooner made soldiers than those of England. That the Irish are not naturally lazy, is evident from the quantity of laborious work which they perform when they have much to do (which is not frequently the case in their own country), and are adequately paid for it, so as to allow them to get proper food to enable them to support severe toil; upon this principle an Irish labourer is always preferred in England.

"The instruction of the common people is in the lowest state of degradation. In the summer, a wretched uncharacterized itinerant derives a scanty subsistence by wandering from parish to parish, and opening a school in some ditch covered with heath and furze, to which the inhabitants send their children to be instructed by the miserable breadless being, who is nearly as ignorant as themselves; and in winter, these pedagogue pedlars go from door to door, offering their services, and pick up just sufficient to prevent themselves from starving. What proportion of morals and learning can flow from such a source into the minds of the ragged young pupil, may easily be imagined, but cannot be reflected upon without serious concern."

"Their hospitality, when their circumstances are not too wretched to display it, is extremely great. It is thus beautifully described by Mr. Curran:—"The hospitality of other countries is a matter of necessity or convention; in savage nations, of the first; in polished, of the latter: but the hospitality of an Irishman is not the running account of posted and ledgered courtesies, as in other countries; it springs, like all his other qualities—his faults, his virtues—directly from the heart. The heart of an Irishman is by nature bold, and he confides; it is tender, and he loves; it is generous, and he gives; it is social, and he is hospitable."

Most of the cottages, or cabins, as they are here called, are made of mud dried, generally without windows or chimney. A small piece of ground for potatoes belongs to almost every one of them, which is the principal means of support to the family, who seldom taste any thing but potatoes and milk. If the outside of these hovels is wretched, the inside is not less disgusting. The family,

whether few or many, sleep together on straw; and the cow, pig, dog, cat, and fowls, repose frequently in the same apartment. The dress of the inhabitants is of a piece with their habitations: they wear no shoes or stockings; the women are often bare-headed, and are frequently seen abroad with little else but stays and petticoat; yet the native cheerfulness of their disposition lightens their sufferings, and makes them fond both of singing and dancing.

The smoking of tobacco is almost universal among the lower orders, especially with the women, who are seldom seen without a short pipe in their mouths.

By far the greater number of them are papists; and it is the interest of their priests, who govern them with absolute sway, to keep them in the most profound ignorance. They have also laboured under many discouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and body faculties; but when employed in the service of foreign princes, they have been distinguished for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Their principal music is the bagpipe and harp; and their tunes, which are generally brisk and lively, are extremely diverting when sung by an Irishman. The old Irish is generally spoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where some of the ancient uncouth customs still prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this practice may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their custom of placing a dead corpse before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body, to excite the charity of passengers, has been practised even of late years, and that too in the skirts of Dublin. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoons, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themselves, are offensive to every stranger. But these customs are chiefly confined to the more unpolished provinces of the kingdom, where their tyrannical landlords, or leaseholders, oppress the poor without mercy.

The descendants of the English and Scotch since the conquest of Ireland by Henry II. form the wealthiest part of the nation. Of these are most of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eastern and northern coasts, especially Belfast, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulster, which is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, by far the best cultivated and most flourishing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scotch, in the reign of James I. and other presbyterians, who fled from persecution in that country in the succeeding reigns, settled and established that great staple of Irish wealth, the linen manufactures, which they have since carried on, and brought to the highest perfection. Hence it appears, that the present inhabitants are composed

of three distinct classes of people: the old Irish, poor, ignorant, and depressed, who inhabit, or rather exist upon, the interior and western parts; the descendants of the English, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coast facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, and science; thirdly, emigrants from Scotland, in the northern provinces, who, like the others, are so zealously attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require some ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are so thoroughly consolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and better sort of the Irish nation in general, differ little in language, dress, manners, and customs, from those of the same rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate.

Almost all the old Irish surnames have *O*, or *Mac*, put before them, as *O'Brien*, *Mac Bride*, &c. which signifies the son of such an one.

Population.—At the commencement of the last century, the number of inhabitants in Ireland was thought to be about two millions; whereas, in 1672, there were, according to Sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000. In 1731, they were 2,010,221. In 1750 the return of the houses under the hearth-tax amounted to 395,439; in 1760 they were increased to 433,941; in 1780 they amounted to 474,234, exclusive of 160,000 cabins, that were not liable to the tax; in 1791 (the last enumeration), these together amounted to above 700,000; and in 1810, their number may be fairly estimated at 807,882, and the number of persons at 5,207,292, or exactly double the amount in 1760, which is an amazing increase in the existing population within fifty years.

That the population of Ireland has increased in the rapid manner above mentioned is evident from several circumstances; but more particularly from the great extension of manufactures, commerce, and agriculture, which unavoidably occasions an increase of labour, and that again a multiplication of hands. The tillage of Ireland is said to be six times more extensive than it was in 1760; so that six times more people are employed in that single department of labour: the people thus engaged must also furnish employment for a much greater number of mechanics of all descriptions, as the numerous and varied branches of trade depend on each other like the links of a chain. The astonishing increase in the quantity of many articles imported for home consumption, such as coals, drapery, tobacco, tea, and sugar, may be regarded as another decisive proof of an increasing population. In 1783 there were 230,135 tons of coal imported, whereas in 1804 they amounted to 417,030. There were 353,753 yards of old drapery imported in 1783; but in 1804, according to the custom-house

books, they amounted to no fewer than 1,330,304 yards: other articles have increased in proportion.

Commerce, Manufactures, &c.—Ireland was distinguished at an early period for her manufacture of woollen stuffs; yet, except in three or four principal towns, the spirit of industry made little progress, and the chief existing manufactures may be asserted to be of recent origin. The linen trade was not unknown at an early period, as appears by acts of parliament enacted in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth; but this was chiefly for home consumption; and it was not till the reign of William III. it became of consequence, when such heavy duties were imposed upon Irish woollens that the efforts of the industrious were entirely directed to the linen branch, which has increased in a most astonishing manner. In 1780 its annual produce was estimated at £2,000,000 sterling; and in the year ending January 1799 the value of Irish linen exported to Great Britain exceeded £2,500,000, exclusive of that sent to America and what was consumed at home; and it has since considerably increased. Another grand portion of the commerce of Ireland arises from her abundant stores of black cattle, the moisture of the climate rendering the pasturage remarkably luxuriant. The other exports are horses, beef, pork, green hides, tanned leather, calf-skins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheese, ox and cow-horns, horse-hair, lead, copper ore, herrings, dried fish, rabbit skins and fur, otter-skins, goat-skins, salmon, &c.

The chief imports are wine, brandy, tobacco, spices, hops, coals, block-tin, mercery, grocery, and haberdashery goods. In 1780 Mr. Young computed the average imports of Ireland at £1,240,677; and the exports at £2,012,202. Yet he afterwards calculates the exports at about three millions and a half; and the balance of trade in her favour at above £1,000,000. From the annual average taken of the three years preceding the 5th of January 1799, it appeared that the total value of exports from Ireland to Great Britain alone was £5,612,689, whilst the value of imports from Great Britain was only £3,555,845, leaving a balance in favour of Ireland of £2,056,844. This balance is, however, turned against Ireland by upwards of £2,000,000 remitted to absentees; and by the interests of loans raised in England.

The Dublin society for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, was incorporated in 1750.

The coins used are the same with those of England (the Irish having no mint); but they differ in their denomination; an English shilling passing for thirteen-pence, a guinea for £1. 2s. 9d. and so of the other coins in proportion.

Language.—The language of the Irish is fundamentally the same with the British and Welch,

and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made use of by the Scotch Highlanders, opposite the Irish coast. It is, however, much defaced by provincial alterations, but not so changed as to render the Irish, Welch, and Highlanders unintelligible to each other. The Irish Paternoster is as follows:—

Ar nothairne ata ar neamh, naomhtar hairin; tigeadh do tiogachd; deantar do thoil, ar an tialamh mar ata ar neamh; tabhair dhuirn a nua ar naran leibhneail; agus maithdhuirn bhfiacha amail mar maithmidne mar bhfeithneamhuibb fein; agus na leig sinn a cathughadh, achd saor sinn o oile: oir is leat fein an rioghachd, agus an cumhachd, agus an ghloir guffioraige. Amen.

Learning and Learned Men.—Learning seems to have been cultivated in this country at a very early period. An ingenious and respectable writer of the last century has published a small volume, being a chronological catalogue of Irish authors, from about the year 450 to his own time, containing about 200 names; the tenth century, as usual in European literature, being the most barren, whence it is styled by literary men the dark century.

In modern times the Irish have also distinguished themselves in the republic of letters. Archbishop Usher, Dean Swift, Sir Richard Steele, Bishop Berkeley, Mr. Boyle, Dr. Leland, Parnell, Sterne, Goldsmith, and the late Edmund Burke, were all of them natives of this country.

University.—Ireland contains but one Protestant university, which is denominated Trinity College. It consists of two squares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. Three sides of one of the squares are of brick, and the fourth, which is a very superb library, is built of stone. The inside is embellished with the busts of several ancient and modern worthies. In their museum is a set of figures in wax, representing females in every stage of pregnancy. They are done upon real skeletons, and are the labours of almost the whole life of a French artist. This seminary was founded and endowed by Queen Elizabeth. It consists of a chancellor, vice-chancellor, provost, vice-provost, 22 fellows, and 13 professors of various sciences; the number of students is commonly about 600, including 70 scholars on the foundation, and 3 servitors or sizars.

In 1795 the parliament of Ireland established the Royal College at Maynoth, about twelve miles from Dublin, as a place of education for young men of the Roman Catholic persuasion, to which the imperial parliament of Great Britain added a considerable sum, in 1809, in order to carry the intentions of the Irish parliament into fuller effect.

Religion.—The established religion and ecclesiastical discipline of Ireland is the same with that of England. But among the bulk of the people in the most uncultivated parts, popery, of the most absurd and illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Irish Papists

still retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But, owing to the institution of the Hibernian Society in London, and the efforts making by the different denominations of Dissenters and Wesleyan Methodists, who have introduced missionaries that address them in their own language, and distribute among them numerous small tracts, explaining the leading principles of Christianity, vast numbers have renounced the errors of popery, and embraced protestantism.

The episcopal government of Ireland is under the superintendence of four archbishops and eighteen bishops, of which the following is a correct list, with their present estimated value per annum.

The four archbishoprics are,

Armagh	£8000
Dublin	5000
Tuam	4000
Cashel	4000

The eighteen bishoprics are,

Londonderry	7000
Clogher	4000
Elphin	3700
Limerick	3500
Meath	3200
Killala	2900
Cork	2700
Kildare	2600
Raphoe	2600
Waterford	2600
Kilmore	2600
Cloyne	2500
Clonfert	2400
Killaloe	2300
Down	2300
Lough and Ferns	2200
Dromore	2000
Ossory	2000

Order of Knighthood.—The order of St. Patrick was first instituted in 1783. It consists of the sovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord-lieutenant for the time being acts as grand master of the order; the archbishop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbishop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the register of the order, in whose cathedral the knights are installed. Their robes are splendid; and the badge is three crowns, united together on a cross, with the motto round, “*Quis separabit?*”

Revenue.—In the year ending the 5th of January 1805, according to an account laid before the house of commons, the sum raised for Ireland exceeded £10,000,000, of which £4,729,406 was the net produce of the ordinary revenue, and the rest was procured by a loan. The national debt of Ireland was at that time £53,296,357, 15s. By the terms of the Union, Ireland pays $\frac{7}{11}$ ths of the general expences

expences of the empire, and this sum in the same year amounted to £5,081,474.

Laws, Constitution, and Government.—The laws of Ireland differ very little from those of England; for after the conquest by Henry II. the laws of England were received and sworn to by the Irish nation assembled together at the council of Lismore; and, by subsequent particular acts made in Ireland, the statutes in force in England have been adopted, and decisions in common law have been taken as precedents. The courts of law have been the same as in England since the Union, which took place in 1801. Before this event Ireland had a parliament of its own, consisting of 300 members; instead of which it now sends 100 members to the imperial parliament.

The spiritual and temporal peers of this part of the United Kingdom are represented in the imperial house of peers by four bishops and twenty-eight lay lords, who are elected by the bishops and peers of Ireland, and hold their seats for life; and in consequence of this union, which we trust will prove an unspeakable blessing to both countries, the Irish are to have a share of all the commerce of Great Britain, with the exception of such parts of it as belong to chartered companies, and consequently not free to the inhabitants of the British empire indiscriminately.

Ireland was formerly only a lordship to the king, who was styled *Dominus Hiberniæ* till the 33d year of Henry VIII. who assumed the title of King.

The executive government of Ireland is vested in a viceroy, or lord lieutenant, appointed by the king, who resides in Dublin in great splendour, and who is assisted by a council consisting of all the officers of state.

SECTION III.

Summary of the History of Ireland.

THE ancient history of Ireland is enveloped in considerable mystery and uncertainty. Their own historians pretend to very great antiquity; and, according to them, the island was first inhabited, about 322 years after the flood, by one Partholanus, who landed in Munster on the 14th of May, with 1000 soldiers, and some women, from Greece. He is said to have undertaken this voyage on account of having killed his father and mother in his native country. But the most wonderful circumstance is, that about 300 years after the arrival of this colony all of them perished by a plague, not a single person remaining to tell the fate of the rest: in which case it is rather surprising how the catastrophe should come to be known. Numerous other fabulous accounts might here be inserted, which, in our opinion, are as much entitled to credit as the foregoing, and to enter into which would far exceed our limits. In the opinion of Mr. Whitaker, the name of this island sufficiently imports the origin

of the aboriginal inhabitants. The word *Ireland* was evidently derived from *Eir*, which, in the Celtic language, signifies “west.” This word was sometimes pronounced *Iver*, or *Hiver*, which have the same signification, and from whence the various names by which Ireland has been called have naturally arisen. About 350 years before Christ, according to the same author, the Belgæ crossed the channel, invaded Britain, and in a short period of time extended themselves over a great part of the kingdom. Numbers of the former inhabitants, who had gradually retired before the enemy, were obliged at last to take shipping on the western coast of England, and pass over into Ireland, which was then uninhabited. These, for several years, were constantly joined by numbers of others in a similar situation; till about 150 A.D. the island is represented as being full of people, distinguished among the Britons by one general and very apposite name, viz. that of *Scuits*, or *Scots*, “the wanderers,” or “refugees.”

About the middle of the 5th century, St. Patrick, the great apostle of Ireland, was employed in the propagation of Christianity in this country, under whose direction it made a most rapid progress. After this period, Ireland was occasionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England; and, about the year 800, by the Danes and Norwegians, who were the first that erected stone edifices in this island. The common habitations of the Irish before this time were hurdles covered with straw and rushes. The natives defended themselves bravely against these invaders, who were, on this account, prevented from exploring the interior parts of the country; and for a length of time were content to settle upon the coasts, where they built Dublin, Limerick, Waterford, Wexford, and Cork. But, by almost imperceptible degrees, they became masters of the whole island, driving the original inhabitants to seek for shelter in the Isle of Man, and the Western Isles of Scotland, where they established and became a powerful kingdom. In the 12th century Ireland was divided into five different kingdoms; viz. Ulster, Leinster, Meath, Connaught, and Munster, with several other petty princes, who were, no doubt, tributary to the others. Dermot, king of Leinster, having been expelled his kingdom for carrying away the wife of one of their petty princes, fled to England to solicit the friendship of Henry II. offering to hold his crown in vasalage. Henry wanted little persuasion; and in 1169 Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, with several other adventurers, were directed to attempt its conquest; but failing ultimately, in consequence of mutual jealousy, in 1172 Henry II. in person, attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran soldiers, and the flower of his nobility landed near Waterford, and in process of time, not only all the petty princes, but Roderic O’Conner, king of Leinster,

Leinster, submitted to him. Henry held a parliament in Dublin, where he settled an English colony from Bristol, and formed a civil administration for the government of the whole kingdom, as nearly similar as possible to the laws of England.

Henry gave the title of Lord of Ireland to his son John, who, in 1185, went over in person, and, by the misconduct of his followers, rendered himself disgusting to the Irish, who were otherwise well disposed towards the English. John, however, made them full amends for these outrages, when he came to the throne, by enacting wholesome laws, and endeavouring to eradicate from the minds of the Irish, that they were a conquered people. During the two following reigns Ireland continued united to England; till, in 1314, the 8th of Edward II. the Scots excited them to a rebellion; and in 1315 Edward Bruce, brother to Robert king of Scotland, expelled the English from almost all parts of the kingdom, and was actually crowned king of Ireland at Dundalk, and narrowly missed being master of Dublin: but, in 1318, he was slain in a great battle with the English, and his followers driven out. Several of the succeeding monarchs of England may be said to have governed Ireland principally by supporting the chiefs against each other, till the reign of Henry VIII. who, not content, like his predecessors, with the title of Lord of Ireland, thought proper to assume that of King; which highly gratified the native Irish, and produced happier effects than any other measure in the submission of the whole kingdom. There were still, however, frequent rebellions of the natives; so that the English did not fully establish their power till 1614, the 13th of James I. who established a Scottish colony in Ulster, which ultimately, from the most rebellious province in the kingdom, became the most quiet and industrious. In the reign of Charles I. the Catholics, during the trou-

bles in England, were instigated by their priests to hope, not only to re-possess the lands of their forefathers, but to re-establish the popish religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a horrid conspiracy to destroy all the Protestants in the kingdom: but, luckily, their bloody design was discovered in time to prevent their gaining possession of Dublin; though it partly succeeded, and in many parts of the country the most horrid and cruel massacres were perpetrated. Authors differ materially as to the numbers who fell sacrifices to this barbarous conspiracy; some estimating them at nearly 100,000, and others at not more than 10, or 12,000: but we are inclined to think with Hume, that they might amount to 40,000. What followed in consequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Irish papists upon themselves, belongs to the history of England. It is certain, that they suffered so severely, that they were quiet for a great length of time, during which the country began to flourish, and arts and manufactures were introduced. Since that period to the present time the history of the two islands has become, as it were, blended together; and, except trifling differences between the Protestants and Romanists, nothing occurred worthy to be separately recorded, till the rebellion in 1798, which at one time bore a very alarming aspect, but, by the vigour and promptitude of the British government, was at length quelled.

The event of the Union, in 1801, has been already noticed; since which time no affair of importance has occurred, save the cruel murder of Lord Kilwarden, lord chief justice of Ireland, in 1803, by a party of ruffians, in the vicinity of Dublin. Several persons found to have been concerned in this affair were speedily brought to condign punishment; and since that period the country has been tranquil and flourishing.

IRISH ISLES.

THE few and small isles around Ireland are unimportant. At the south-east extremity of Ireland appear the rocks called **TUSKARD**, and the **SALTEE** Isles. At the southern extremity is the Isle of **CLARE**, about three miles and a half in length, and more remarkable for its southern promontory, called Cape Clear, than for any other object. To the north-west are the Isle of **DURSEY**, the **HOG** Islands, and the **SKELLIGS**; to the north of the latter is **VALENTIA**, off the coast of Kerry, which is followed by the **BLASKETS**, or **FERRITER** Islands. The South **ARRAN** Islands lie at the mouth of the bay of Galway, and are remarkable for a small kind of oats without any husk, and for

large calves: the chief of them is nearly seven miles in length. A number of small islands encircle the coast which projects furthest into the Atlantic; to the north is **ACHILL**, the largest of the Irish isles, being about 12 miles long by 10 broad; it is separated from the coast of Mayo, by a narrow channel; but no minute description of it is known. **INIS-MURRY** is a small isle at the mouth of the bay of Donegal; and next are the Northern Islands of **ARRAN**, off the coast of Donegal. At the north-west extremity of Ireland is **TORY** Isle: and, returning towards the east, is **INISTRAHULL**. At an equal distance is **RACHLIN**, the *Ricina* of Ptolemy, and memorable as the retreat of Robert I. of Scotland.

CHAP. III.

THE

KINGDOM OF DENMARK.

THE dominions of his Danish majesty in Europe are numerous and extensive; but several of them, from their remote northerly situation, are sterile and unproductive, and are chiefly important on account of the trade which is carried on between them and Denmark Proper, greatly to the advantage of the mother-country, the inhabitants of which export thither all kinds of colonial and other produce, and receive in exchange those articles of northern commerce, which they send again to their more southern neighbours. The Kingdom of Denmark is composed of EAST and WEST GREENLAND; the Island of ICELAND; DANISH LAPLAND, or FINMARK; the Kingdom of NORWAY; DENMARK PROPER, or the Peninsula of NORTH and SOUTH JUTLAND and the ISLANDS in the Baltic; and the Duchy of HOLSTEIN in Germany. The dimensions of each country, as far as can be ascertained, together with the chief towns, will be found in the following table :

	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.
Greenland . . .	—	—	Unknown	Good Hope
Iceland	350	240	43,264	Bissesssted
Danish Lapland	280	170	28,000	Wardhuys
Norway	910	170	112,000	Bergen
North Jutland .	155	98	6,866	Wiborg
South Jutland .	70	63	2,640	Sleswick
Zealand	60	60	2,112	Copenhagen
Funen	40	30	1,376	Odensee
Falster	23	12	150	Nyekiobing
Laaland	32	12	240	Naskow
Langeland . . .	30	3	70	Ludkioping
Femeren	14	5	15	Burg
Alsen	15	6	54	Sunderborge
Moen	14	5	40	Sterge
Bornholm . . .	20	12	160	Ronne
Holstein	90	50	2,768	Lubeck

GREENLAND.

Name—Situation and Extent—Settlements—Climate, Seasons, Soil, and Face of the Country—Animals—Vegetables—Persons and Dispositions of the Inhabitants—Their Dress—Habitations—Provisions and Cookery—Employments—Manners and Customs—Religion—History, &c. &c.

NAME. **T**HE part thus denominated is the remotest tract of land in the north of our globe. Its name has evidently obtained from the green colour of the hills in summer, whose summits, from their situation next the sun, being thawed, present a striking contrast with the immense fields of ice that surround them.

Situation and Extent—Greenland lies between Europe and America, and is generally classed by geographers among those northern countries that remain unknown. As far as it has been disco-

vered, it has been found to reach, on the north-east side, from the 59th to the 80th degree of north latitude; and on the side opposite North America, to about the 70th degree.

When seamen speak of Greenland, they generally mean the Danish islands of Spitzbergen, lying north of Lapland, between the 75th and 80th degree of latitude, with the eastern coast of Greenland, lying opposite thereto. This eastern coast is but thinly, if at all, inhabited at present; but the western side of Greenland, from the 62d to the 71st degree north, is again colonized by Europeans. The islands of Spitzbergen are uninhabited, except during the season of the whale fishery. The globe here is so round, that even at the distance of six miles, in a calm, sailing east or west, the masts of a ship only are discoverable; at eight miles, no other part can be seen than the topmast; and at twelve

twelve miles, the flag only : yet the mountains of Spitzbergen rise so high as to be seen 48 miles off.

Settlements.—The land on the western side of Greenland is barren, high, and rocky, and rises in most places adjoining the ocean in such lofty mountains and inaccessible cliffs as may be seen at sea at the distance of about 40 leagues. The cliffs and mountains being constantly covered with ice and snow, these, by continually falling, have filled the valleys, and seem annually to increase their height. The plains between the rocks are also covered with frost, except where there is a scanty portion of earth and grass, an occasional little brook and pond, and some few low, scattered shrubs. Within land there are no inhabitants, and but very few upon the coast: the few there are inhabit the southern parts, from Statenhook to the 62d degree: these places, however, are but little known to us. Of the European settlements, the most southern is the colony of *Frederic's Haab*, or *Frederic's Hope*, situated in the 62d degree of north latitude, planted by the Danes in 1742. It lies one mile and a half from the open sea, and is a good haven and place of trade. In the islands opposite, where the Dutch merchant-ships formerly harboured, many Greenlanders reside, they being well situated for catching fish, seals, and rein-deer. This colony is yet but small.

About twelve leagues north of this colony is the ice-glance, or shining ice, called in the charts *Eis-blink*. It is a large high field of ice, whose glances in the air, resembling the *aurora borealis*, may be seen at sea for many leagues. It was an inlet within the land, whose entrance is now blocked up in such a manner, by many vast pieces of ice, driven out by the ebb, that it forms, as it were, an arched ice-bridge, eight leagues in length, stretching from land to land, and two in breadth. Such Greenlanders as wish to enter this harbour, carry their little canoes over land upon their heads, and, when they have passed this bridge, they find open water, for twenty leagues in length and two in breadth. Places are found here where Greenland houses formerly stood;—a proof that the mouth of the harbour was once open.

About 36 leagues north of *Frederic's Hope* is another colony called *Fischer's fiorte*, or *Fisher's Bay*, begun in 1754. Here the Moravians established a second mission in 1748; but, as few Greenlanders live about this place, it has but little trade. In this neighbourhood are seen many ruins, probably the relics of the old Norwegians.

A third colony, called *God-Haab*, or *Good Hope*, lies in 46 deg. 14 min. north latitude, 36 leagues north of *Fisher's Bay*. Here there are some hundreds of small islands crowded together in the compass of six leagues. The Moravians have here also established a congregation, built a church, a

provision-house, a smith's shop, and a brewhouse; and the houses of the natives are scattered round them. This is the oldest settlement in Greenland, having been founded in 1721.

A fourth colony, established in 1734, lies in 70 deg. There are also three or four others; but the twelfth, and farthest north, is in 71 deg. and was erected in 1758. We are told by the natives, that the country is inhabited as far north as 78 degrees, though very thinly; for, notwithstanding there is plenty of eider-fowls, white bears, seals, and whales, yet, from the long winter nights, it is almost impossible to live there, the land being little else than dreary rock and ice.

Climate, Seasons, Soil, and Face of the Country.—The greatest part of this country being covered with perpetual snow, it must naturally be very cold. In winter, where the inhabitants enjoy the sun for an hour or two in the day, the cold is tolerable; but where the sun is entirely below the horizon, it is most intense, insomuch that while people are drinking tea, the emptied cup, when put down, will freeze to the table. Paul Egede, a missionary, in his journal of January 7, 1738, says, that in latitude 68 deg. when he was there, the ice and hoar frost reached through the chimney to the stove's mouth, without being thawed by the fire, even in the-day time, so that over the chimney was an arch of frost, with little holes, through which the smoke issued.

The summer in Greenland is from May to September, during which five months the natives encamp in tents; yet the ground is not mellowed by a thaw till June, and then only on the surface, nor does it cease snowing till this time. In August it begins snowing again; but not any snow continues on the ground till that which falls in October. In the longest days, particularly in serene and clear weather, it is so hot that people are not only obliged to throw off their winter garments, but on the sea the pitch will melt on the ships' sides; and from April to August the fogs are so thick, almost every day, that people cannot see forty yards before them. It has been often remarked, that the weather in Greenland is just the reverse of what it is in other parts of Europe. In the year 1763, when it was so remarkably cold throughout Europe, it was so mild in Greenland that it is often colder here in summer. In general, the air is so pure, that if a man clothe himself warm, eat moderately, and take good exercise, he will enjoy a good state of health and spirits. The winds are as variable here as in other countries; but, when it once begins to be stormy, which happens mostly in autumn, they rage so vehemently, that the houses shake and crack; tents, and the lighter boats, fly up into the air, and the sea water scatters about on the land like snow dust.

When

When any one is obliged to leave his house, in order to put his boats into shelter, he must creep upon his belly, lest the wind should take him off his legs.

There is not any night in this country, during the summer, beyond the 66th deg. north; in the longest days, the sun does not set; but it shines not with such lustre at night as at noon, resembling only a very bright moon, which a man can look at without being dazzled. On the other hand, the winter nights are so much the longer; and in the 67th deg. the face of the sun is never seen above the horizon, from November 30 to January 22. And yet there are no dark nights here, as in other countries; the moon and stars added to the snow and ice, give such a light, that people can go very well out of doors without a lanthorn, and see plainly to read print of a middle size. This is called the *aurora borealis*.—As in the shortest days sometimes the moon never sets, so little is seen of it in the summer time; and the stars never appear from May to August.

Animals.—This desolate land affords nourishment to a very few kinds of beasts, which supply the natives with food and raiment. They have hares and rein-deer in plenty. The former are white, both in summer and winter, and live on grass and white moss, but are little regarded by the natives. Their rein-deer are of that northern kind which are met with in Siberia, Norway, Lapland, and other northern parts. They are here wild, and not easily caught; being about the size of a two year old heifer: their colour is brown, or grey, with white bellies; their skin very thick of hair above an inch long; their antlers differ only from those of the common buck, in being smooth, grey, and broad at top; and their flesh is tender and well tasted. They are very cleanly and contented creatures; live in summer on the tender grass they find in the vallies, and in winter on the white moss which they dig for under the snow. Here are also foxes; but somewhat different from those of southern countries. Some are white, but in general they are blue or grey; they bark like dogs, and resemble them about the head and feet; they live on birds and their eggs, berries, muscles, crabs, and what the sea casts out. The natives catch them in traps; and, if in want of food, prefer them to hares. Blue fox skins are eagerly bought up by the factors.

White bears are met with in all parts of Greenland: they have a long, narrow head like a dog; their hair is long, and as soft as wool; their bodies are often three or four yards in length; their flesh is white and fat, tastes like mutton, and the natives are very fond of it. They prowl, upon the flakes of ice, after seals and dead whales: and will attack the sea-lion, though this creature frequently overcomes them. They will swim from

one piece of ice to another; and, when attacked, will defend themselves even against a boat full of men. When on land, their food is birds and their eggs; and, if impelled by hunger, they will devour the human species. In winter, they immure themselves in holes between the rocks, or bury themselves in the snow, till the sun invites them abroad.

There are not any tame quadrupeds, except dogs of a middle size, which more resemble a wolf than a dog, not barking, but howling and growling. They are too stupid to be of much use in hunting, but are harnessed as horses to a sledge, from four to ten at a time, in which the natives visit each other, or draw home their seals over the ice. Their skins are used as covering to beds, and as ornamental borders to their garments.

Of land birds there is no great variety, because there is little food for them. The principal is the northern partridge, such as in Switzerland are called snow-bens. They cast their feathers twice a year. Their colour is grey in summer, and white in winter, the colour of the snow;—a wise precaution of Providence, to preserve them from birds of prey which hunt after them, and but for this circumstance would readily find them. Here are also snipes, and some small singing birds; and, of birds of prey, the great dark-brown eagle, grey and spotted falcons, white owls, and ravens.

The eider-fowl, or black duck, is, on account of its down, a profitable article of commerce. Its flesh is eaten by the Greenlanders, and of its skin they make their finest and warmest under-garments. As the down, when stripped from the dead bird, is apt to heat by lying, and will not swell and distend itself rightly, they contrive to procure it from the fowl whilst living. For this purpose, they visit their nests, which the tender mother lines with this soft substance, either dropped or plucked from her body, to prepare a warm bed for her callow brood; and of this down we have warm light coverlets in England.

Fish.—Of the most profitable kinds of fish, the north is the proper rendezvous and residence; where, under the ice, they find shelter from the whales that prey on them: whales being frequently obliged to rise above water, to draw breath, cannot follow their prey far under the ice. Here then they retreat, breed, and fatten; but, in order to make them subservient to the use of man, the wise Creator has ordained that they should annually make their way southward. We see this, particularly in herrings. Some unknown cause drives them out, in innumerable shoals, like swarms of bees. As they advance, they are chased by fish of prey; and these, in their turn, are hunted by the seals and whales, and obliged to fly to the shallowest sand-bank for protection, where the larger fish

cannot

cannot follow them, and where they are caught by fishermen. These seas not only yield herrings, salmon, cod-fish, &c. but flounders, holibut, a variety of shell-fish, and some small fish peculiar to this latitude.

It is necessary, in treating of Greenland, to give some account of the whale and its fishery, which employs not less than 350 or 400 ships yearly of different nations, and that in a compass of two degrees, from the 77th to the 79th. These ships sometimes catch from 1800 to 2000 whales in the space of two months, and wound many that escape.

The Greenland whale, by English sailors called the *black whale*, is described, in "Martin's Voyage to Spitzberg," and "Zordrager's Greenland Fishery," to be from 50 to 80 feet long. They were formerly from 100 to 200 feet in length; but being now caught in such multitudes, have not time to grow to their full size. The head is a third part of the length of the whole body; it has only two fins, on each side of the head, from five to eight feet long, but with these it rows along very fast. Its tail is six or eight yards broad, and, turning up at both ends in a curve, it is enabled with it to dash the strongest boat in pieces: it is, however, a timid animal, never beginning an attack, but flying at the least alarm. Its skin, above, is commonly black and smooth, like velvet, and white underneath. On the head is a bunch, where are two nostrils, through which it breaths, and spouts out the water it takes in at its mouth, with a noise that can be heard at three miles distance. Its eyes are placed between its nostrils and fins, and have eye-lids that drop over them, and are not larger than those of an ox. It has no flaps to its ears, nor any teeth in its mouth, but contains in its upper jaw, which is six yards long, those barders, blades, or whiskers, as they are called, of which we make the whale-bone. There are commonly 350 on each side; but the 50 largest only are taken. They hang like the pipes of an organ; the least before and behind, the longest in the middle, which are generally four yards in length. The tongue consists wholly of soft, fungous fat, like bacon, which will fill from five to seven large barrels. This fish brings forth its young like a quadruped, full-formed, generally one at a time, but never more than two, which it suckles: when pursued, it wraps up its young in its fins, close to its body. Whales have two skins; the inner an inch thick; the outer one as thin as parchment: under these lies the fat, from six to twelve inches thick; about the under lip it is two feet in thickness. The fat of the whale will, according to the size of the fish, fill from 100 to 300 barrels. Its flesh is coarse: Greenlanders eat the part about the tail, and call it a delicacy. Its bones are hard; on the inside

full of holes, like a honey-comb, and filled with train.

It is natural to suppose that this enormous animal would require many large fish for one meal; but, its swallow being scarce four inches broad, it lives chiefly on a white slime, swimming on the sea, called whale's food; but which, in fact, is an animal wearing that appearance. This it imbibes by strong suction; and, as a great quantity of water flows in with it, the animal blows out the water again at its nostrils. This slime being found in the greatest quantity between Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla, and Greenland (where it floats in such abundance that the creeks are as full of it as our ditches with insects), the whale rarely emigrates from these parts.

The taking of whales among the fields of ice, that have been increasing for ages, is, perhaps, one of the boldest enterprises of man. These fields or pieces of ice are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickness; and when they are put in motion by a storm, nothing can be more terrible: the Dutch had thirteen ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

When the seamen see a whale spout, the word is immediately given, *a fall! a fall!* when every one hastens from the ship to his boat; six or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats usually belong to one ship.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner strikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the animal, finding himself wounded, drives swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him, if they did not give him line fast enough. To prevent the wood of the boat taking fire, by the violent rubbing of the rope on the side of it, one wets it constantly with a mop. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes such a terrible noise with his spouting, that some have compared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface of the water, some of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep. When he comes up, a second time, they pierce him with spears in the vital parts, till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength. When he is dying, he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship, if they be at a distance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and, by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home: the smell of these ships is almost insufferable. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of three or four pounds a barrel.

Though

Though the Danes claim the country of East and West Greenland, where these whales are taken, the English have in a manner monopolized this fishery.

The whale is a perfectly inoffensive animal, and intolerably worried by various marine insects, which fix themselves upon him in myriads, and from which annoyance he has no means to rid himself.

There are five or six species of seals; some two, and others three yards in length. They cannot easily be caught by a single person, unless when they are big with young, and of course helpless; but, as they are animals of passage, retiring from Greenland in March, to cast their young, and returning in June, young and all, like a flock of sheep, the seal-hunters endeavour, on their return, to surround them on the ice, where they often lie sleeping in herds. They first frighten them by shouting, which occasions them to stretch out their necks, and yell, at which time the catchers take the opportunity to stun them, by giving them a desperate blow on their noses; after which they kill and flay them.

To the Greenlanders the seal-fishery is the best harvest.—Seals' flesh, with that of the rein-deer, is their most delicious and substantial food: the fat supplies their lamps and fires with oil, softens their dry food, and, by barter, furnishes them with all the necessities of life. Of the fibres of seals' sinews, they make thread; the transparent skins of their entrails serve them for windows, curtains for their tents, shirts, and those bladders they fix to their harpoons; and of the maw they make train bottles. When there is a scarcity of iron, they make instruments and tools of their bones; their blood, with other ingredients, they convert into soups; and make their clothes, bedding, and boats, of their skins. Catching seals, therefore, is the great end of Greenland education; to which the children are trained from their infancy, and by which they maintain themselves, become agreeable to each other, and useful members of society.

They have two kinds of boats for this purpose; a large one and a small one. The large one, or woman's boat, is from twelve to eighteen yards in length, four or five feet wide, and three deep; the other is about six yards long, eighteen inches broad, and barely twelve inches deep; they are flat-bottomed, widest in the middle, go off sharp at each end, and are covered with seal-skin. The large boats are open at the top, and are commonly rowed by four women; one steering with an oar behind. In the fore-part is a mast, with a sail made of seal-gut skin, six feet high, and nine feet wide; and though they can with this sail make way only before the wind, and cannot keep pace with an European boat under sail, yet they can row them faster.

The natives are troubled with large gnats, besides small ones, in such quantities, that, in hazy summer weather, it is difficult to screen themselves from them. They have all sorts of earth-worms and maggots, but nothing venomous, except spiders; no serpents, toads, frogs, rats, mice, fleas, or such animals, as they cannot live in this cold country.

Vegetables.—The vallies in general have no other herbage than moss, and sour moor grass, and the uninhabited islands furnish only a few low shrubs, heath, and herbs; the land, however, near the Greenland houses and encampments, from many years cultivation with the blood and fat of seals, though in itself nothing but a barren sand, produces the finest herbs in uncommon quantity and size. Grass grows here, not only in fenny, sandy, and turly ground, but also in the cliffs of rocks, where any earth has lodged, and especially near the houses, where it grows very thick and long. One sort of moss is like a soft thick fur, which the natives use as we do waste paper, and also to stop the crevices of their houses; another sort serves them for tinder, and wicks for lamps. They have a kind of white moss, on which the rein-deer feed in winter, and which, in cases of necessity, would preserve the human life. There is another kind of moss, that serves them instead of bread, being occasionally boiled with milk, as a substitute for oat-meal. Voyagers have attempted to grow barley and oats: these will shoot up as fine and high as in our country, but seldom get into ear, and never ripen, on account of the early frosts, even in the warmest places. As the season will not admit of sowing till the middle of June, they cannot raise many vegetables. Radishes grow as well here as in most other countries; but salad and cole are very small, and will not bear transplanting. Wortleberries and cranberries are here met with, and a fruit like the mulberry, only yellow, instead of red; these last are exported, are very refreshing, and a remedy for the scurvy. There are plenty of large juniper-berries; and also three kinds of willows, but the cold will not suffer them to rear their heads. Their birch, though somewhat different from ours, is in the same predicament; and the farther north the more naked and sterile is the land.

Persons and Dispositions.—The Greenlanders are of low stature, not exceeding five feet in height; but well shaped, and proportionate in their limbs. Their faces are generally broad and flat, with high cheek-bones, but their cheeks are round and plump. Their eyes are small and black, but without animation, and their noses project but little from their faces; their bodies are of a dark grey, but their faces are of an olive colour. As their children are born white, this grey tinge proceeds in part from

their filthiness; for they are continually handling train-oil and grease, sitting in the smoke, and seldom wash themselves: their food also may contribute to the same end; for their blood is so affected by it, that their breath smells like train, and their hands feel clammy. The hair on their heads is, universally, strong and long, and of a coal-black colour; but the men have seldom any beard, as they take great pains to pluck it out. Their hands and feet are small and soft, but their head and limbs large. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women, who accustom themselves to carry heavy burdens, and, being corpulent, can endure the cold, with bare heads and necks, and very thin clothing: nay, the men commonly sit naked within doors, except their breeches; and at this time their bodies emit an intolerable steam. They are very light and active, do not want strength, and can endure great fatigue. They are of a phlegmatic nature, but good-humoured, sociable, and far from covetous; being so little concerned for the future, as not to hoard up any thing. They are not quarrelsome, but patient, and draw back where any one encroaches on them; but if provoked, become desperate.

The pacific disposition of these people is much to be admired. Several families here live in one house. If any one conceives himself injured, he removes to another house, and that without a murmur. They are happy to assist each other, and live, in some measure, in common, yet without any one relying on the labour of another. If a man return home with provision in the evening, he divides it with the families under the same roof; but, poor as they may be, not one presumes to ask for any thing; nor, indeed, is it necessary in a country where such hospitality is practised.

Dress.—Their clothes are made of the skin of the rein-deer, seals, and birds. Their outer garment resembles a waggoner's frock, but not so long and loose; and they put it on the same way, drawing it over their heads, like a shirt; at the top of it is a hood, which they can pull up occasionally over their heads, like the hood of a capuchin. Their under garment is a kind of shirt, made of the skins of birds, with the feathers inwards. Most Greenlanders of property make their upper garment of cloth or cotton. Their breeches are of seals' skin, very short above and below; their stockings are made of the skin of a seal's foetus, taken out of the body of the dam; and their shoes of smooth, black, dressed, seal-leather, tied with a thong on the instep. The soles of their shoes stand out, bending upwards both before and behind, two inches broad, but they have no heels. The rich natives wear woollen stockings, breeches, and caps; and when they make a voyage, cover themselves with a black smooth seal's hide, as a great coat. The dress of

the women is much the same, only their jackets have higher shoulders, and a higher hood, and are not cut round, even at the bottom, like the men's, but, from the thigh, drop in a point before and behind, below the knee, and are bordered with red cloth. The women also wear breeches, with short drawers under them. They wear a kind of high shoes, or boots, of white or red leather, the seam of which is before, and ornamented. Mothers and nurses wear an upper garment, wide in the back, with a pocket in the shoulders large enough to hold a child, which is left there naked, and is no otherwise taken care of. They are very careful of their best clothes; but their ordinary dress drips with grease, and their head swarms with vermin, natural to their filth, which they are expert at catching, and kill between their teeth.

The men wear their hair cut short in the poll, and squared off on their foreheads; but as it is a reproach to a woman to cut her hair, except in cases of deep mourning, or when they resolve never to marry, they tie it up to the top of their heads, so as to ornament their crowns, binding it with glass beads, or some gay bandage. The same kind of ornaments they wear round their arms and necks, and in their ears, and round the borders of their clothes and shoes; but such as aim at being beautiful, and want to be admired, draw threads, blacked with soot, under the skin of their chins, cheeks, hands, and feet, which leave a black mark behind, as in the face resembles a beard. The mother performs this painful operation on her daughters in their infancy, lest they should not get a husband. The accompanying Plate will afford an accurate idea of these people.

Habitations.—In winter they live in huts, and tents in summer. Their huts are generally built with stones or sods, on some eminence near the sea, in order that the snow may run from them. They are seldom more than four yards broad, from 8 to 24 long, and just high enough for a person to stand upright in. They have neither door nor chimney, but the deficiency is supplied by a passage five or six yards long, by which they can pass through the middle of the hut, the roof of which passage is so low, that they are obliged to creep in almost on their hands and feet. This long entrance keeps out the wind and cold, and lets out the thick air; for, as they burn only oil within, they have no smoke. The inside of the walls are hung with old tent and boat-skins, and the roofs covered with the same. From the middle of the hut to the back wall, there is a raised floor or broad bench, made with wood, and covered with skins, and this floor is divided by skins, stretched from the posts that support the roof, into apartments like horse-stalls, in each of which a family lives, so that houses contain from three to ten families, some

some more, and some less. On these floors they sit in the day time, the men with their legs hanging down, the women behind, cross-legged, and in the night they sleep on them. Along the front wall, opposite to this wall, are several square windows, made of seals' entrails and halibuts' maws, and sewed so neat as to keep out the weather, and yet admit the light. A bench runs along the whole length of the house under the windows, where strangers sit or sleep. By every post is a fire-place. A block of wood is laid upon the ground, and upon that a flat stone; on the stone, a low three-legged stool; and on that stool a lamp a foot long, resembling a half-moon, hewn out of marble; it stands in an oval wooden bowl, placed under the lamp, to receive the waste oil. In this lamp, filled with seal-oil, they lay some moss, rubbed fine, which burns so bright, and gives such a heat, as not only lights the apartment, but warms it. Over this lamp hangs a marble kettle, by four strings, fastened to the roof, in which they boil their meat; and over this is placed a wooden rack, on which they lay their wet clothes, and boots, to dry. At the outside of these mansions they have little store-houses, where they lay up their provisions; and close by are their boats, drawn on the land, and laid upon pots, with their bottoms upwards, to preserve them.

Provision, Cookery, &c.—In dressing their meat they are as dirty as in every thing else, seldom washing their kettles, but leaving them to the dogs to clean. Their boiled meat and broth they eat with bone spoons, from a wooden dish, but their undressed meat lies on the bare ground. They eat with their fingers, and tear with their teeth; and, when the repast is over, scrape their chops with a knife, lick the blades, and put it in their pockets. When they wish to treat a stranger genteelly, they first lick the meat he is to eat clean from the scum it had contracted in the kettle; and should this not be well received, it would be looked upon as rude and unmannerly. They eat whenever they are hungry, but the evening meal is their chief repast, when they frequently invite their neighbours, or send them a part of it. The men eat first by themselves, and their greatest joy is to see their children gormandize. They take no thought for the morrow, but, when they have plenty, will dance and eat to excess. But when March comes, and the seals retire till May, if bad weather ensues, they must struggle with hunger for many days together; nay, so little do they provide for a future contingency, that they are often reduced to the necessity of eating muscles, sea-weed, old tent-skins, and shoe soles, if they have but oil enough to boil them.

Their drink is clear water, which stands in the house in a large copper vessel, or in a wooden tub,

which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fish-bones and rings.

Employments.—The men make their hunting and fishing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats, and the women cover them with skins. They hunt and fish; but when their booty is towed to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fish upon the shore. The women are the butchers, cooks, and curriers to dress the pelts; and they are likewise both shoemakers and tailors. They also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenter's work. They have no trade, though a most improvable fishery is upon their coasts.

Manners, Customs, &c.—The Greenlanders seldom marry a near relation, or, indeed, any person bred up with them; but there are some instances of a man's marrying two sisters, or a mother and the daughter. Being a great reproach not to have a son, it leads men occasionally into polygamy, though it is not very general. Scarcely a married man in twenty has more than one wife. If a woman do not breed, she is sometimes put away, and this with little more ceremony than a sour look on the part of the man, and packing up her clothes on that of the wife. When this happens, the woman returns to her own friends; and, in order to bring an odium upon him, conducts herself with great prudence and decorum. Where a wife cannot agree with other women in the same house, she will elope, especially if she have no son, for sons are the pride of a Greenlander's heart; his greatest treasure, and best security of his property.

The women are not very prolific, seldom having more than three or four children. When, therefore, they are told of the fruitfulness of other nations, they compare them to their dogs. Very few die in child-birth; and a still-born or deformed child is scarcely ever heard of, though the mother works just before and immediately after her delivery. They suckle them till they are four or five years old, for want of proper food for children; of course, when children are obliged to resign the breast to others, they will often die; and should the mother die before the child can subsist on gross food, the poor infant will not long survive her.

They are strangers to salutations, and laugh at a man's standing uncovered in presence of his superior; yet the young have a due respect for the aged, and each man a proper regard for the other. Assiduous to please, they study to avoid every thing that will create uneasiness. They do not contradict or interrupt any one in his discourse; but one is suffered to finish his speech, before another begins. When they make a visit in their boats

boats, they never fail to take with them a present; if their company be approved, they are welcomed on the shore with singing, and all hands are ready to draw the boat upon land. Every one is anxious to have the guests at his house; but, as the visitor is unwilling to have it thought that he is come abroad with mercenary views, he waits with silence till pressed to partake of their hospitality. The men sit among the men, and the women by themselves. The conversation of the men turns upon the weather, hunting, and fishing; that of the women on the death of their relations, which they close with a great howl, and then proceed to divert their guests with little entertaining stories. All the time, the horn goes round with snuff. In the mean time the repast is prepared.

Their traffic is very simple: having no money, they barter with each other for what they want; and, being as eager for new things as children, they are constantly changing, and that often to their disadvantage. They will give the most useful article in exchange for a trifle that pleases their fancy; and will reject a useful thing in exchange for a bauble, if it does not please them. They seldom cheat, or steal from one another; but they glory in over-reaching an European, esteeming it a proof of superior adroitness. They keep a kind of annual fair among themselves; and, as the people in the south have no whales, and those in the north no wood, the Greenlanders coast the country every summer, from 200 to 400 leagues, with new boats and tackling, exchanging them for wood, horns of the unicorn fish, teeth, whalebone, &c. part of which they barter on their return. In these voyages they take their whole family and property with them.

The sun-feast is a rejoicing at the return of the sun, in the winter solstice, about the 22d of December. On this occasion, they assemble all over the country in large parties, and treat each other with the greatest hospitality. When they have feasted, they rise up to play and to dance, but have nothing but water to drink. The only musical instrument they have is a drum, which the drummer beats with a stick to common time, skipping at every stroke, and making antic motions with his head and his body. This music he accompanies with a song, in honour of seal-catching, and expresses his joy at the return of the sun. When one is tired, another begins, and thus they continue the whole night through; the next day they sleep, and in the evening dance and sing again. This festival lasts several days and nights, till they are nearly exhausted.

They have other amusements. When the moon shines, they play at ball; and they have various methods of trying each other's strength; such as striking one another on the bare back, and trying

who can bear it the longest; sitting down, and linking legs and arms together, endeavouring to out-pull each other, hooking their fingers together, and trying their strength, by drawing &c. Dancing assemblies are appointed also at other seasons of the year, when they abound with stores; and if the weather is unfavourable to procure more at these times, they traffic and barter.

But the most singular custom in Greenland is their singing and dancing combats, by which they decide their quarrels. If a man conceives himself injured, he does not vent his anger in words, nor proceed to any revenge, but composes a satirical poem; this he rehearses so often, with singing and dancing before his family, that they all get it by heart. The man publishes his design of fighting with his antagonist, not with a sword, but a song; and a place of meeting is appointed. The party challenged attends at the place, encircled with his friends, when the challenger begins his song, to the beat of a drum, and chorussed by his party, with *Amna ajah*. In this song, he points many mortifying invectives at his adversary. When he has done, the accused renews his attack, and so on, and he that has the last word gains the cause. The body of the people present constitute the jury, bestow the laurel, and the two contending parties become good friends.

Religion, &c.—The Greenlanders have some traditionary confused notions of the creation, and a future state; they are so enveloped in idle tales, as to bear very little affinity to the truth. The Moravians have a missionary at each colony, and have been remarkably successful in introducing the gospel among them. The *Angelokoks*, or soothsayers, were formerly in great repute among the Greenlanders, and have had recourse to a variety of arts, tricks, and deceptions, to gain the credit of being thought magicians. The missionaries, however, have of late so exposed their arts and roguery, that they begin to grow into disrepute, and Christianity gains ground daily.

They have no conception of writing, nor can they count more than 20; they contrive to reckon their years by winters, and their days by nights, but when they get beyond 20, they leave off counting. In physic, they have methods of curing themselves when sick; and in surgery, of bleeding, setting a fracture, and couching an eye.

Funeral Ceremonies.—When a Greenlander is on the point of death, they dress him in his best clothes; when dead, they carry every thing within the house into the air, that the smell of the corpse may go off; they then silently bemoan him, for about an hour, and proceed to bury him, which is done usually in some remote place, the nearest relation carrying the body on his back, which, sewed up in a skin, is laid on some moss, or on a skin on the

the ground (for they cannot dig in a rock), and heaped round and covered with large broad stones, to keep it from the birds and foxes. Near this spot they deposit the boat and tools of the deceased; and, if a woman, her knife and sewing implements. After the interment, those who attended the procession retire to the house of mourning. The men sit a while, leaning with their elbows on their knees, and their heads between their hands, and the women lying prostrate with their faces on the ground, softly weeping and sobbing. At last, the father, son, or nearest relation, repeats a funeral discourse, or elegy, in praise of the deceased; and, at every period, his death is lamented with loud crying and weeping. The women afterwards continue their howl in one tremulous tone, the men only sobbing. At last, the viands left by the deceased are spread on the floor before the mourners,

who eat heartily, and never fail to repeat their visits daily, whilst there is any thing left.

History.—There is no satisfactory proof of Greenland having been inhabited before the arrival of the Norwegians in the 10th century. In 1023 the Danish Chronicles informs us; that these colonists became formally tributary to the crown of Norway, and were governed by a viceroy, according to the laws of Iceland, till 1350; when a terrible plague, which raged in almost all the northern countries, made the most dreadful havoc in these settlements, where it was called the *black death*: very few of the settlers escaped; and those who did, were shortly after massacred by a savage tribe of people, who are said to have migrated thither from the adjacent coasts of America, and from whom the present natives are descended.

ICELAND.

Name—Situation and Extent—Climate and Soil—Mountains and Volcanos—Natural Curiosities—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Towns—Persons and Character of the Inhabitants—Their Dress—Houses—Inclosures, &c.—Manner of Living—Amusements—Religion—Trade—Government—History, &c. &c.

Name.—WE shall be enabled to present our readers with a more complete account of this large island than has hitherto appeared, as we are in possession of the extensive work prepared by Messrs. Olafsen and Povelsen, who, a few years since, made a complete tour through the island, by order of his Danish majesty. Indeed so novel and interesting are the materials they have furnished, that we shall be indebted to them almost entirely for the following particulars respecting this place, which evidently was so termed from its being almost constantly surrounded with ice.

Situation and Extent.—It is situated in the North Seas, between Greenland and Norway, not farther than 40 miles distant from the eastern coast of the former. It lies between 63 and 68 deg. north latitude, and 10 and 26 west longitude, that is, four degrees farther eastward than it has been hitherto described. It is justly classed among the largest islands in the world, and is but little inferior in magnitude to the island of Great Britain.

Climate and Soil.—Iceland is deemed a healthy country. The usual heat is not extreme, nor the cold in general very severe. In the cold seasons the mercury in the barometer has been 24 deg. below the freezing point; at other times it has risen to 104 deg. Thunder and lightning here are very

rare, and met with only in the neighbourhood of the volcanos, of which there are about twenty in the island. The northern lights are uncommonly strong, tinged with yellow, green, and purple; and vapours of the *ignis fatuus* kind are often seen attaching themselves to men and beasts.

The Icelanders reckon their summer from the middle of April to the middle of October, and the rest of the year with them is winter, neither spring nor autumn: but it snows and hails sometimes in summer; and, what is most remarkable, a north wind seldom brings frost. There are immense masses of ice, by which, every year, great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate; they arrive commonly with a north-west or north-north-west wind from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms thickness, is separated by the winds, and less dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often 50 and more feet above water, and is at least nine times the same depth below water. These prodigious masses of ice are frequently left in shoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that state remain many months; nay, it is said, even years, undissolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmosphere, for many miles round. When many such lofty masses of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them is so much chafed, and pressed with such violence together, that it takes fire; which circumstance has occasioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. This ice caused so violent a cold in 1753 and 1754, that many horses and sheep were killed by it; and, through want of food, horses were observed to

feed upon dead cattle, and the sheep to eat of each other's wool. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the sheep. The Icelanders attempt to destroy these intruders as soon as they get sight of them; and sometimes they assemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire-arms, they are obliged to make use of spears on these occasions. The government encourages the natives to destroy these animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their skins are also purchased for the king of Denmark, and are not allowed to be sold to any other person.

The north part of the island is exposed to rigorous frosts, and, at intervals, to moist and cloudy weather; it also snows and freezes in the midst of summer. The grass is thin, and difficult to dry; and the cattle are lean, and often shed their hair; on the other hand, the inhabitants are very liable to leprosy and the itch.

Mountains and Volcanos.—Though this island is situated so far to the north, earthquakes and volcanos are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have several times laid the country almost desolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal effects. Many of the snowy mountains have also gradually become volcanos. Of these burning mountains, Hecla is most known to foreigners. It is situated in the south part of the island, about four miles from the sea-coast, and is divided into three points at the top, the highest of which is in the middle, being, according to exact observation, more than 5000 feet above the level of the sea. Sir Joseph Banks, Dr. Solander, and Dr. Van Troil, ascended it in September, 1772. They rode on horseback to the first opening from which the fire had burst, which they say, is a place surrounded with glazed walls and vitrified cliffs, that they knew not how to describe. A little higher up they found a great quantity of grit and stones; and still farther on, another opening, not very deep, but where they observed evident marks of hot boiling water. As they ascended higher, the mountain was covered with snow; and about two hundred yards below the summit they discovered a hole of about four feet and a half in diameter, from which so hot a steam exhaled, that they could not ascertain the degree of heat by a thermometer they had with them. When they reached the summit, which they did by climbing, they found a space of ground, eight yards in breadth, and twenty long, free from snow. The sand was wet, as if the snow had just melted away. At this place, Fahrenheit's thermometer, when held in the air, stood at 24, but when set on the ground it rose to 153. The barometer was here at 22.247,

and the thermometer at 38. It emitted some flames in the very month they visited it, but sent forth no lava.

But the greatest of the eruptions of Iceland, and the most tremendous of any recorded in history, was that in 1783, which, we are assured, on the authority of Mr. Pennant, extended 94 miles in length, and 50 in breadth, dried up 12 rivers, and overwhelmed not only all the villages it found in its way, but likewise many hills. The perpendicular height of the sides of this current was from 80 to 100 feet, so that the entire surface of the country was in a state of fluidity, and formed a lake of fire, resembling a mass of melted metal.

M. E. Olafsen, in company with M. Povelsen, undertook a journey to Mount Hecla; a description of which we will present to our readers in their own words.

“On arriving at a habitation called Selsund, near Mount Hecla, the owner wished to become our guide. He was well acquainted with the country around this mountain, though he had never travelled farther than its base; for the people consider it as an act of rashness to attempt to examine the mountain; and they assured us that it would be impossible to ascend it, on account of great numbers of dangerous bogs, which they asserted were always burning with sulphuric fire, and exhaling smoke; while the summit, according to them, was covered with boiling springs, and large craters which continually propelled smoke and fire. They told us that Hecla was provided with a guard of black and singular birds of the conformation of the raven, armed with beaks of iron, with which they gave a very unpleasant reception to those who had the temerity to climb the mountain. This story is one remnant of the popular prejudices that have been formed with regard to this mountain. Our guide, nevertheless, assured us that he never perceived either the birds, the fire, or the smoke.

“We had an opportunity, during our journey to Mount Hecla, to contemplate its environs, which on the south and west sides afford the most afflicting specimens of frequent eruptions. The finest part of the territory in question is covered by torrents of melted stone, sand, ashes, and other volcanic matter. Between the sinuosities of the lava we observed, in different parts, some portions of meadows, walls, and broken hedges; and our guide informed us that on the east and north sides the devastation was still greater, and afforded dreadful traces of the ruin of the country and its habitations.

“There are neither grass nor plants to be met with to the extent of two leagues round Mount Hecla, in consequence of the soil being covered with stones and lava; and in some parts, where the

the subterraneous fire has broken out afresh, or where the matter which was not entirely consumed has become ignited again, the fire has contributed to form small red and black hillocks and eminences from scoriæ, pumice-stone, and ashes. The nearer we approach towards the mountain, the larger are these hillocks; and there are some of them, the summit of which is a round valley, whence the subterraneous fire ejects the matter just mentioned.

“As we approach towards Mount Hecla, the ground becomes almost impassable, particularly near the higher branches of lava which have been thrown from the volcano. Round the latter is a mountain of lava, consisting of large melted flag-stones, which are from 40 to 70 feet high, and in the form of a rampart or wall. We were here obliged to leave our horses; and even our guide begged to be excused from attending us any farther, under the pretence that he had a violent head-ach; but the real reason we suspected rather to proceed from the operation of his prejudices with respect to this terrific volcano. The flag-stones alluded to were detached, and mostly covered with moss; while between them were very deep holes, which prevented us from advancing without the greatest circumspection. We ascended on the western side. The rocks appeared very strange to us, for they cracked continually under our feet, which at first gave us much uneasiness; but, on investigation, we observed that the rock itself had been consumed and was reduced to pumice-stone, which was disposed in thin horizontal layers, fractured in every direction. From this circumstance an idea may be formed of the intensity of the fire which could thus consume a whole mountain: for if Helca were for a few times to take fire again, all the rocks that compose it would fall into ashes.

“We continued to ascend without meeting any obstacles that impeded our attempts, by small slopes, which we found at intervals, of which we passed seven before reaching the summit. We found in the breaches and fissures, which were very numerous, a quantity of white, black, and red, polishing-stones (*skuurstein*), the first of which was uncommonly fine and light. This circumstance tends to support the account of Mount Hecla having vomited water. Here has also been found, after the different eruptions, a great quantity of salt, sufficient to load a number of horses, which in no small degree tends to confirm the opinion of the connection between volcanos and the sea. Such a communication may reasonably be presumed, particularly with respect to the volcanos and glaciers of the eastern parts of Iceland, on account of the great extent of their bases: in fact, these mountains vomit a much greater quantity of water than the solution of the ice would afford; and it has even

been observed, that these waters possess a brackish taste.—With respect to Mount Hecla, it may, as an objection to this theory, be observed, that a vast quantity of rock salt may be contained within it; but its bowels undoubtedly extend to a level with the sea. Besides, independently of the opinion, so generally received by learned men of all countries, that there is a secret connection between this mountain and Etna in Sicily, (since the two volcanos have so often been observed to burn at the same time,) a number of curious examples are known, which prove the sympathy between Hecla at the time of its eruptions, and the other volcanos in Iceland, more distant from it than it is itself from the sea.

“It was on the night of the 19th of June that we ascended the mountain. The weather was serene and calm; but when we had attained a certain height, we began to feel cold; the surface was covered with ice and snow; not, however, of the nature of those of the glaciers, because here the ice melts in summer, except such as remains in the deep fissures and holes. On reaching the ice, we found it covered with snow that had lately fallen, which we ascertained to be deeper and deeper in proportion as we ascended: at the summit of the crater it was a foot and a-half. The whole of this, as well as the preceding day, the air had been clear in the canton beneath the volcano; but, like the other mountains, it attracts the clouds that envelope its summit, without their being perceived by the inhabitants. It is worthy of remark, that the snow had fallen only on that part of the mountain which was covered with ice, and not below; so that it may be concluded, that the ice which is on the mountains in summer is the measure or degree of elevation, or that region of the air where the thick clouds and vapours can collect and float in the atmosphere, though the air may be pure and serene in the lower regions: hence at this height the air possesses a certain density. In other respects Hecla is only a small mountain, compared with the high glaciers and mountainous chains of the interior parts of Iceland. Its circumference is from three to four leagues; and its height, by approximation to that of the other mountains which have been measured, is about 3000 feet above the plain of sand that is below the rampart of lava.

“After a fatiguing journey, up to our knees in snow, we at midnight reached the summit of Mount Hecla. A perfect silence prevailed; and we could perceive nothing but ice, and neither fissures, streams of water, boiling springs, smoke, nor fire. It was as light as at noon-day, so that we had a view of an immense extent. We looked over all the glaciers in the eastern part; and in the distance we saw a high and square mountain, which

which our guide had previously informed us was the ancient volcano of Hærdabreid, which appeared to us like a large castle. We also discovered all the high mountains in the northern quarter.

"Not meeting with any thing remarkable on this mountain, we descended by the western side, along a ravine or deep valley, which runs from the summit to the base. There is some reason to believe that this ravine is the bed of a river of lava which the volcano ejected in the year 1300, since the annals assert that during this eruption Hecla was split from top to bottom: and though the cavity in question now bears the appearance of a deep valley, it is certain that, when formed, it was laid open to the bowels of the mountains; but when the eruption ceased, it was soon filled with the stones, rocks, and gravel that fell into it. At length we rejoined our guide at the bottom of the hill: he expressed his surprise at seeing us return safe."

From every probability this mountain must have been subject to eruptions long before Iceland had any inhabitants. One of the annals states the first eruption, after it was peopled, to have occurred in the year 1004; and another chronicle asserts that the one of 1029 was the third. But, in general, the histories of the country do not agree on this point; for from certain annals which speak only of great eruptions, Mount Hecla appears to have undergone no more than twelve; while others contend that sixteen have taken place. We, however, after attentive reading and careful research, ascertained that it has experienced twenty-two eruptions, without reckoning those the periods of which are uncertain, though many take them into the account; because the same eruption has sometimes lasted upwards of a year, or one has commenced in winter, and continued till the succeeding spring. Most of the annals of Iceland agree in stating that the first known eruption from Mount Hecla took place between the years 1004 and 1106.

Natural Curiosities.—Among the curiosities of Iceland, none are more worthy of attention than the hot spouting water-springs, with which this island abounds. The hot springs of Aix-la-Chapelle, Carlsbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and several others found in Italy, are considered as very remarkable; but, excepting in the last mentioned country, the water no where becomes so hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown so high as the hot spouting water-springs in Iceland. All those water-works that have been contrived with so much art, and at so enormous an expence, cannot by any means be compared with these. The water-works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greatest among all the French water-works, cast up a thin column 80 feet in the air; while some springs in Iceland spout columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height, as many affirm,

of several hundred feet. These springs are of an unequal degree of heat. From some the water flows gently, as from other springs, and it is then called a *bath*; from others boiling water spouts with great noise, and it is then called a *kettle*. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil says that he does not remember ever to have observed it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyser, Rœynum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212 (the boiling heat); and in the last place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is very common for some of the spouting-springs to cease, and others to rise up in their stead. Frequent earthquakes and subterraneous noises, heard at the time, cause great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In several of these hot springs, the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the flesh is put in cold water, in the water of the spring. They also bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become lukewarm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of these springs are said to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and they are likewise esteemed very wholesome when drank by the human species.

The largest of all the spouting-springs in Iceland is called Geyser. It is about two days journey from Hecla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a loud roaring noise is heard, like the rushing of a torrent, precipitating itself from stupendous rocks. The water here spouts several times a day, but always by starts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed that it spouts to the height of 60 fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at some times than at others; when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmost height to which it mounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Basaltine pillars are likewise very common in Iceland, which are supposed to have been produced by subterraneous fires. There are also many caverns; that called Souther is the largest, the best known, and the most remarkable, as well on account of its form, as from the details given of it in the ancient and modern histories of the country. It is situated in the south part of the island; and the country that surrounds it bears every mark of volcanic eruptions. The cavern and its environs consist of rocks of lava melted into masses, and exposed to the air a long time before the country was inhabited. It may be seen, from the course of the lava, that the eruption took place from the glacier of Geitland or the rocks behind it, and that the flux ran between the glacier and another mountain called Eryksnypa, whence it afterward separated into two branches. Indeed the whole of this extent of country

country presents a striking and extraordinary picture of the action of subterraneous fire. On one side may be seen large masses of detached rocks; and on the other, perfectly horizontal strata of stones, melted and mixed into all manner of forms and figures. There may frequently be seen large crevices, vaults, and arches in the rocks, but particularly three caverns, situated a quarter of a mile to the south of the Sourther. One of these was formerly considered a very convenient place for collecting the sheep, when sending them to pasture, it being very long, with an entrance only wide enough to admit the sheep conveniently; after which they dispersed themselves over the cavern, which was large enough to contain 2000 of these animals. The third of these caves is the longest of all, as it receives at one end a branch of the river of Nordling, and disembogues it a distance of a quarter of a mile.

The entrance to the cavern of Sourther is gloomy, and runs from north-west to south-east, but preserves its height, which is from 30 to 36 feet, while its width is from 50 to 54. Its soil or bottom is uneven, sometimes rising, and at others falling; its partitions are the same, only that there is an equal distance between them. On advancing, it is perceived that the cavern turns to the south, and afterwards to the south-west and west, in proportion as it diminishes in width.

In this cavern there are stalactites of various sizes: the largest are three inches long by two and a half in diameter at their base. They receive by fusion the same form as lava stone, and appear to be composed of the same substance: they are, however, rather finer, and are covered externally with a reddish-coloured varnish; internally, they are more or less porous and compact, proceeding probably from the greater or less degree of heat to which they have been subjected.

The sides or partitions of the cavern produce the greatest effect, as they are covered with a sort of varnish in horizontal squares, separated by borders in relief. This varnish is formed of a very fine vitreous, but opaque matter: in some parts it is black, but it is generally of a greenish colour.

Animals.—Of wild quadrupeds there are but two sorts, bears and foxes. Bears are not natives of this island, but come annually from Greenland on the floating ice. When a bear is seen on the land, the people pursue him till destroyed by spears, which they use upon these occasions. Of wild foxes there are great plenty, generally of a dark red colour; but some few black, some white, and others grey. These the Icelanders take some pains to destroy, by gins and traps.

Seals or sea-dogs are very numerous, and are often killed by the country-people, by striking them on the head with sticks, and afterwards cut-

ting their throats: these animals are ascertained to have bones in their legs.

The tame animals are horses, oxen, cows, sheep, goats, and hogs. Their horses are properly of the Norwegian breed; strong, lively, brisk, and very tame. They have some wild horses on the mountains, so very wild that they will fly at the people when they offer to catch them; but when tamed, no animals are more gentle. The cattle, both cows and bullocks, are not very large, but fat and fine. There are as many here without horns as with. The customary price of a cow is about 120 ells of *vadmel*, a kind of baize, by which every article is valued and sold. Thirty of these ells are valued at 4s. 6d. English: so that a cow is worth 18s. But there is no breed of cattle so much attended to in Iceland as their sheep; and there are many peasants who have from two to four hundred. The sheep differ from ours in several particulars: they have straight ears standing upright, a small tail, and four or five horns. Every farmer is provided with stables and folds, sufficient for a flock of sheep, where they are sheltered in the winter, and fed on hay. In stormy weather, when the sheep are out, they will hide themselves in caves and holes in the mountains; but when they cannot find any retreat during a heavy fall of snow, they gather together in a heap, with their heads in the middle, and bent towards the ground, so that if they are buried in the snow the owner knows where to find them, at which time they will eat the wool from each other's backs. In a storm of wind, in summer time, whole flocks have been carried away 60 or 70 English miles, and often driven into the sea, where they have perished. Good sheep give from two to six quarts of milk a day, of which, as well as of cow's milk, butter and cheese are made. But the principal profit they derive from their sheep is wool. They do not shear it, as we do; but, about the end of May, when it gets loose, strip it off at once, like a skin. The outer wool is something like camel's hair, but more shaggy, designed by nature to enable them to support the rigours of the winter: under this is a fresh coat of finer wool. The price of six ewes, from two to four years old, is about eighteen shillings English. The shepherds that guard them are so expert, that at one view, in a flock of two or three hundred, they can tell whether any are missing, or whether any strange sheep have got in among them. As the rams are suffered to run about among the ewes, to prevent unseasonable leaping, they tie a cloth under their bellies, which is taken off towards Christmas. Dogs and cats are in plenty, especially the former, scarce a family being without two or three, a house-dog, and others to attend their sheep.

There are many birds of prey, as eagles, falcons, hawks, and ravens. Owls and kites, crows and magpies,

magpies, there are none. The Iceland falcons are the best for sport: the king of Denmark sends every year a falconer, with two attendants, to buy them up. Of wild fowl they have woodcocks, snipes, ouzels, and partridges, in abundance, but no quails: of common fowls, chickens, ducks, pigeons, &c. as in other countries. Here is also plenty of wild ducks, and a profusion of coast birds, that will stray out at sea, in large flights, to the distance of 30 or 40 leagues. It is the large quantity of fish these seas are stocked with, that occasions such flocks of birds to harbour here. There are also wild geese and swans.

The swan is a constant inhabitant of this island: great numbers of them frequent the fresh rivers up the country, and breed there, and the natives make great profit of their down and feathers, as they do of the eider down, of which we made some mention in our account of Greenland. The eider-ducks generally build their nests in little islands, made on purpose to invite them, where they will swarm if not disturbed; nay, they will become so tame as to suffer people to take their eggs whilst they are sitting. When these birds build their nests, they pluck the fine down from their breasts to line them. When their eggs and down are removed, they go to work again, new line their nests, and lay more: and when the nests are robbed a second time, and the duck has no more down, the drake supplies it. This is not removed till the young ones are hatched and flown. One female, during the whole time of laying, will afford half a pound of down. There are generally exported, every year, on the company's account, 1500 or 2000 pounds of down, exclusive of what is privately exported. In the year 1750, the Iceland company sold as much in quantity as came to £842 sterling. Of this bird, the female is the size of a common English duck, the drake the size of a goose. As soon as their young are hatched, they run out after the duck, and when she gets them to the water-edge, she takes them on her back, and swims away with them, and, when at some distance from the shore, she dives, and leaves the young ones swimming to shift for themselves, and come after her.

The environs of the gulf of Borgar in particular are filled with swans, which resort thither on account of the numerous marshes. They collect and remain in a space of the country from eight to ten miles long, and three or four broad, consisting mostly of swampy spots, and lakes of fresh water. Here, in August, they shed their plumage, and the inhabitants take great pains to collect the feathers, and catch the swans; young as well as old people availing themselves of the time when they cannot fly. In spring also, when they begin to lay, the inhabitants collect the eggs. On hunting

the swan, they repair on horseback; but on this occasion, they make use of strong horses, and such as are not skittish; they also bring dogs, which have been taught to seize the swans by the neck, which deprives them of their courage and strength. When they first arrive, they find the swans with their young in the field; on perceiving which, the hunters immediately take to the water, and on this occasion it is ascertained, that the bird runs nearly as fast as the most active horse. The hunting of swans is not only advantageous to the Icelanders on account of the feathers that they sell to foreign traders, but they also have the down and the carcase, which bring a good revenue; they eat the flesh, though tough and hard, and skin the feet in such a way, that the nails remain after the skin is taken off, which, when dried, resembles shagreen, and is made into purses and other trivial articles.

There is also a peculiar kind of pelican in Iceland. They hunt this bird in the night, when it sleeps upon the surface of the water, with its head beneath its wing, and continually moving its feet, to maintain its equilibrium. When strangers arrive in Iceland, they see with astonishment these round masses floating with the wind and tide; for it is not possible to discover what they are, without approaching very near them, or by making a great noise to induce them to raise their heads, as they sleep uncommonly sound. Nature has also given them the instinct to select such places to sleep on, as do not require much exertion to keep themselves afloat. At night, the inhabitants get into canoes, and row with muffled oars, that they may not wake the birds; on coming near, they stun them by striking on their head with a stick, and afterwards wring their necks. They procure from these birds a quantity of feathers, and also eat the flesh, which is compact and oily.

The sea-gull abounds in Iceland. The sea-swallow is also very numerous, and is remarkable for its courage, as it attacks with the greatest effrontery all persons who approach its nest or young.

There is also a species of lapwing, of which so many superstitious and surprising stories are told by the people, that if one half could be authenticated, we must admit it to possess more rare qualities than any other kind of bird: it is said, for example, that it partakes of the nature of the worm, and that when pursued, it darts into the earth, however compact or hard it may be. The eagles are large, and make great ravages amongst the flocks, by seizing upon all the lambs they can come near; the females of this bird may often be seen carrying off young sea-dogs to feed their brood; for which purpose, they avail themselves of the time when they are sleeping about the rocks that hang over the sea. A large species of falcon

is also known in Iceland, the hunting of which is one of the most interesting sports of the inhabitants; particularly as it brings to the country annually from 2000 to 3000 rix-dollars.

The raven abounds throughout Iceland, and indeed is the most common bird there. It is a great destroyer, falling upon fish, animals, and every thing it meets with, particularly in spring. At that season they may be seen watching the sheep that are about to cast their lambs; and no sooner does the young one appear, than the ravens peck out its eyes; and they will even attack the dams, unless the latter are strong enough to oppose them.

Too much cannot be said of the great blessing Providence has bestowed on this island, in the immense multitudes of fish which swarm around the coasts. Herrings abound at certain seasons; but the Icelanders do not apply themselves to this fishery, having neither materials for it, nor a sufficient quantity of salt. A variety of other fish is also caught; as cod, trout, soles, flounders, haddock, whiting, turbot, skate, salmon, and salmon-trouts. The inhabitants dry cod-fish all the summer, and the Danish merchants in Iceland pickle many hundred casks annually, and export it to Copenhagen. They catch also, in the Iceland seas, vast numbers of seals and whales.

There has hitherto been but little information obtained of the insects that exist in northern countries; and it has been even asserted that few are to be found in Norway, and in Iceland none at all, in consequence of the cold which prevails there. Horrebow and Linnæus have, however, proved the contrary; and in Iceland the people are acquainted with several, particularly a troublesome species of gnats, against which, in summer, travellers are obliged to guard themselves by hanging gauze over their faces.

Vegetable Productions.—Forests and woods are very scarce in this country, but it is not without trees. They have some small birch, and shrubs, such as juniper and blackberry, of which they make charcoal for their forges. All over the island are seen spacious tracts of good pasture for cattle, where they will grow exceedingly fat. Every farm has a meadow, or piece of ground, which they call *tun*; it is watched by dogs, that no cattle may come near it, being manured, in the best manner they can, for hay.

All kinds of culinary vegetables may be produced here proper for a kitchen garden, for they have a great extent of good ground. They have also fine gooseberry-trees; and were other fruit-trees planted, there is no doubt but they would bear fine fruit. The greatest difficulty is, to get the trees over at a proper season for planting. Ships do not leave Denmark for this place till May, and then all fruit

trees are in blossom. That the fruits of the earth are not equally fine in all parts of Iceland, is not owing to the soil or the air, but to the ignorance of the people, it being said there are not ten gardens in the whole country.

Minerals.—Iceland abounds with copper and silver ores, but they are never sought after. The other principal minerals are sulphur, pumice, zoolites, chalcedony, and malachite, or copper stalactites. The substance termed *surturbrand*, is a remarkable fossil; it is evidently wood not quite petrified, but indurated, which drops to pieces as soon as exposed to the air. It is found at a great depth, and indicates that trees have formerly been much more plentiful than at present.

Towns, &c.—There are only three towns, if they may be so called, in the whole island, which is not interspersed with villages, as in most other countries, the inhabitants dwelling in distinct farms which sometimes contain several families. The Icelandic Commercial Company have erected three or four houses at each of the twenty-two ports or harbours of the island, to which they have given the name of towns, but with very little propriety. The chief places are,

1. *Bessted*, the modern capital of the island, is situated on a fine bay upon the western coast. The seat of the viceroy is a fine stone building, as are also those of the lawyers and civil magistrates. The others are few in number, and have the appearance of the meanest kind of cottages in England; being built upon a line of ground covered with verdure, which every where gives them the appearance of being situated in the country; their fronts are whitened, or sometimes painted red. The part of the street that runs in front of the houses is paved with flags, or flat stones, placed at short distances for the convenience of foot passengers.

2. *Skalholt*, an ancient city, and the see of a bishop, is situated on the south side of the island, of which it was formerly reckoned the capital. The cathedral is a fine Gothic structure, with several fine antique ornaments, particularly two altar-pieces. They also still preserve here a fine bishop's crook, the head of which is brass, very neatly gilt, and an episcopal bonnet of golden-worked cloth. The houses of the clergy are of stone or brick, built after the manner of those of Denmark; but the others are mean and low.

3. *Hola*, or *Hoolum*, another city, and the see of a bishop, situated on the northern coast of the island. The houses are scattered about in a straggling manner; and the whole are mean and irregularly built.

Persons and Character.—The Icelanders in general are of the middle size, and well made, though not very strong. They are an honest, well-disposed people, moderately industrious, and very faithful

faithful and obliging. Robbery is seldom heard of amongst them. They are much inclined to hospitality, exercise it as far as their power will permit, and express the utmost satisfaction if a stranger be pleased with their liberality. It frequently happens that seven or eight strangers meet together at one time in the houses of these people, and remain with them for a week together, on account of the badness of the weather. As soon as they arrive, the generous cottagers dry their clothes, and lodge and feed them with the greatest pleasure; while in the evenings they amuse them by reciting historical anecdotes, or playing with them at chess, to pass away the time as agreeably as possible. When the strangers set off, they constantly refuse all kind of payment whatever; but if they are obliged to undertake the passage with them, in their canoes, they then accept a compensation for their labour and time. They are very sober and cleanly in the preparation of their food and utensils; a circumstance that rarely occurs in so remote a clime. Their greatest riches consist in the productions of the country, which they employ for themselves and others. Not many rich persons are to be found here; but most of them live at their ease, and very poor families are seldom to be met with.

Dress.—The dress of the Icelanders is not elegant, or ornamental, but neat, cleanly, and suitable to the climate. Their outside garments are generally a coarse black baize, which they call *Wadmél*. The men wear a linen shirt, with a short seaman's jacket, and a wide pair of breeches, or trowsers, over it. When they travel, they wear another short coat over all. On their heads they wear large three-cornered hats; and on their legs worsted stockings, and Icelandic shoes, which consist of a square piece of leather, rather wider than the length of the foot; this is sewed up at the toes, and behind at the heel, and tied on with leather thongs. The women are dressed also in black wadmél, though on the north side of the island they are seen in white clothes. They wear a bodice over their shifts, which are sewed up at the bosom; and above this, a jacket, laced before, with long narrow sleeves, to the wrists. In the opening, on the side of the sleeve, they have chased buttons, with a plate fixed to each button, on which the bridegroom, when he buys them in order to present to his bride, takes care to have his name and her's engraved. At the top of the jacket a little black stiff collar is fixed, of about three inches broad, of velvet or silk, and frequently trimmed with gold cord. The petticoat is likewise of wadmél, and reaches to the ancles; round the top of it is a girdle, or belt, set round with silver, or some other metal, buttoned and clasped before, to which they fasten the apron, which

is also of wadmél, and ornamented at the top with three large chased filligree buttons before. Over this jacket they wear an upper garment, like a loose wide coat, close at the neck, under the collar of the jacket, with narrow sleeves that reach to the wrists. These coats are also of wadmél, and a hand's breadth shorter than the petticoat: they are adorned with a facing, something like cut black velvet, woven by the women down to the very bottom. Their jackets are made to sit neat and close to the waist, and are laced, in all the seams, with coloured ribbands. On their fingers they wear many gold, silver, or brass rings. They tie about their heads a coarse, white, linen handkerchief; and over that another, finer, and formed like a tuft on the top of the head; a foot and a half high. Over this, and under the chin, they tie another of silk or cotton: and this kind of head-dress is worn by all women, single or married. The young girls wear caps; but, when grown up, change them for these high heads. A bride, on her wedding-day, instead of a silk handkerchief, wears a crown of silver under the linen tuft that stands high upon her head. She wears also two silver chains, one hanging down very low before, and the other resting on her shoulders behind. Besides these, she wears a lesser chain on the neck, from which a heart generally hangs, and in which some perfume is put; but during these solemnities the great coat is never worn. Several of the Iceland ladies wear trinkets to the amount of three or four hundred rix-dollars; and these make their dress of broad cloth, instead of wadmél. As for lawyers, and gentlemen in civil employs, they dress in the modern fashion, as they do at Copenhagen, with full suits lined with silk.

Houses and Furniture.—The houses on the southern coasts of the island, being inhabited principally by fishermen, are nothing but miserable huts. It is, doubtless, from this circumstance, that Anderson, and other travellers, have given so unfavourable an account of the houses of the Icelanders. Those who have travelled through this country with a view to observation, must admit that they do not appear to strangers so singular as has been described. The farm-houses and huts are built of lava and clay, thatched with turf. They have only a ground floor; and their windows, instead of glass, are composed of the thin membranes that surround the womb of the ewe, stretched on frames, which admit of light. They have no chimnies; the smoke ascending through a hole in the roof. Without, is a booth or shed, to stow their provisions, &c.; and near that a stable for their cattle. Farm-houses have a smith's shop adjoining, for they are too far from any neighbour to get their smith's work done any where but at home. These houses have generally a few huts about them for workmen,

but

but they all belong to the farm. The Icelanders have adopted a manner of building very suitable to their country; they are more secure from cold than in apartments surrounded by brick-walls. The houses, at the same time, that they better resist the intemperance of the seasons, are more secure than other kinds against earthquakes; for there have been numerous instances in which very violent shocks have not damaged any one of them, while every person walking in the open country has been thrown down. As there are no accommodation-houses for travellers, the magistrates, in their circuits, are obliged to lodge in the churches.

Their household furniture consists of tables, stools, benches, chests, and other necessary utensils; but the houses of those of rank are wainscoted within, and well furnished with looking-glasses, and every requisite.

They have no time-pieces among them except hour-glasses; but they calculate time pretty exactly by the sun or stars, when visible, or by the tide, which is always regular: of course they never count time by the clock, as one, two, three, four; but have particular names, in their own language, for every hour and half-hour in the day.

Manner of Living, Food, &c.—The people of Iceland are emulous to imitate strangers in the luxuries of life, and splendour of the table; even the peasant of the present day follows, in every respect, the same kind of life. He has adopted many foreign articles; but the majority retain the custom of eating liquid food at the end of their meals.

The Iceland peasant takes three meals a day; he breakfasts at seven in the morning, dines at two in the afternoon, and sups at nine in the evening. His breakfast consists, in summer, of coagulated milk, the whey of which is expressed, and the curd diluted with skimmed or fresh milk. In winter, the common dinner is dry fish, and afterwards the same kind of milk-soup as has been just described, with the addition of cheese and bread, or cake. They give the name of cake to a kind of biscuits, made of flour, about three lines in thickness, and a foot in diameter. They are dressed by exposing them to the fire on a flag-stone, and they will keep for a long time.

On Sundays they have a few dishes extraordinary; and on the grand festivals of Christmas and Easter, they would think themselves lost if they did not all have smoked meat, which they dress on the preceding evening. The peasant is not much in the habit of salting his meat, but prefers pressing it, to expel the superfluous juice: he then leaves it for a couple of days, that the remainder of the juice may dry up, and afterwards hangs it in the chimney, eight or ten feet above the hearth. In this way it will keep better than that which is smoked in other northern countries, and which is

known by the name of Hamburg beef. The peasant never roasts his meat, but always eats it with broth, when inclined to regale himself. After the harvest they consume in each family what is called the fat lamb, or sheep. On Shrove Tuesday they are obliged to give their workmen and servants as much smoked meat as they chuse to take: on the next day meat is forbidden till Easter; and during this time they even avoid pronouncing its name. This abstinence appears to be one of the remains of Catholicism.

In the parishes that are distant from the sea they have various other dishes, of which milk forms the basis. When they receive company they present them a draught of milk: this is also their regaling drink on the days of their grand festivals; and they mostly use it without boiling: it forms the principal food of their children, when at an early age; and they give it to their sick, to whom it is very palatable. A tun of skimmed milk costs twelve *aln*, or two marks six schillings of Danish money.

Labours and Habitual Occupations of the Peasantry.—The men are employed, during a part of the winter, in the manufacture of woollen cloths, or in spinning and making worsted stockings and socks, which is, nevertheless, a particular occupation of the women.

In the spring, the fishermen leave their huts for the fishery at Seltiarnes-Naes, or still farther to the southward. The peasantry, who have no possessions of their own, and consequently occupy a habitation and ground which they rent from the crown, are obliged to labour from Candlemas to Easter in the king's boats, or procure a substitute, to whom they pay a rix-dollar or Danish crown. As soon as the ice is melted, they begin to work their peats, putting them to dry, and heaping them in small squares. They are then left till autumn, when each person carries home his supply for the year.

In spring and summer it is the employment of the women and children to watch and attend upon the cattle, but in winter this task devolves on the men. As soon as the thawed waters have run off, they begin to clear the meadows with forks, or a kind of rake, carrying off the straw and other substances that have been drifted by the wind, or conveyed by the water, and which would prevent the shooting of the grass. They then lay on a little dry manure, which on the first rainy day they spread over the ground.

The hay-harvest is commenced as soon as the grass has acquired its full height, and most of the plants run to seed, which generally happens about the middle of July; though in some years the season is earlier or later, according to the weather. When the grass is cut, it is the task of the women to make it into hay, and collect it in cocks to dry. After it is thrown up into heaps, trodden, covered,

and laden with stones, in order to press it down, the Iceland peasants measure their stock by the fathom, and calculate accordingly the number of cows for which they have provender.

The chief autumnal business of the countryman is, to collect the sheep that abound on the hills; when he selects such as are to be killed for the supply of his family. His next occupation is to procure turfs to cover his house, and shelter him from the rain and snow of winter. These turfs are different from those which the Icelanders employ for fuel: on each side of a pack-saddle they place a kind of barrows, of a peculiar shape, on which they load their building-turfs; each of which are nine feet in length by three in breadth. The other autumnal labours are, to build and repair their houses, to get in their turf for fuel, and to manure the downs, after the grass has been made into hay.

The inhabitants of Iceland are by no means fond of travelling: they rarely quit the district in which they reside; and many of them have never gone even as far as its boundaries. Their ordinary routes are from their respective houses to church, whence they return home the same way. In frosty weather both men and women go thither on foot; but when it thaws, they ride on horseback, as the roads are then scarcely passable; and for this purpose, only, almost every peasant has at least one horse in his stable. In summer every one rides, however small the distance may be. Their saddles are nearly of the same shape as ours, excepting that they are stouter, being covered with black leather, and ornamented with brass; the stirrups, bridle, and crupper, are decorated with the same metal, of which also the buckles and nails are made. Their saddles, and in general all their harness, are made of ox-leather: the hides are prepared by being well stretched, in order to dry; when they are rubbed with fish-oil till they have imbibed the fluid; after which they are slightly but frequently beaten with a strong stick. Next, they are trampled under foot, till they become soft and pliant; and are finished by being blackened, or rather tinged of a red colour with the rust of iron, or bark of the birch-tree. Calf and sheep skins are prepared nearly in the same manner.

Amusements.—From the northern historians we learn, that the ancient Icelanders had several recreative games and amusements, which were enjoyed as much by the players as the spectators. Of these games none was more fashionable than the exercise of wrestling. In retaining the practice, the terms have also been preserved which the champions gave to every motion they made; and each of which has its peculiar name.

The smallest and apparently weakest men often overthrow in an instant those who are the largest and most robust; but this only arises from great

practice and activity. In former times the most courageous men, and those of the first families in the country, took delight in this exercise; while at present the young people only follow it as an amusement, particularly in parts which contain an episcopal residence; but some of them excel to such a degree that they are famed throughout the country. At Kiarlarnes, where fishing is pursued throughout the year, they are much attached to this exercise, but particularly in the winter season, when they cannot continue their occupation on account of the frost. Besides their common method, they have also a peculiar manner of wrestling, which consists in seizing the adversary by the shoulders, and throwing him down.

The people sometimes play at draughts; but in this game they have variations which are totally unknown to foreigners. They play at cards in various ways, particularly a game which appears to be *lansquet*. It is remarkable, that though the Icelanders never play either for money or any other thing; yet, according to all appearance, this was not the case in former times, when there was much cash in the country; and it was doubtless, the abuses which then existed that gave rise to certain decrees against gaming, principally in the 11th and 12th centuries. One of these states, that whoever shall be found playing for money, or any thing else, shall be considered out of the protection of the law, so that any man may attack and arrest him. The decree pronounces the confiscation of goods for the same offence.

Population and Diseases.—The number of inhabitants is by no means proportionate to the extent of the country. It was much more populous formerly; but a pestilential disease, called the *black death*, that raged from 1402 to 1404, swept away almost every person from the island. Many parts of Iceland have also been, at different times, depopulated by famine; for though the Icelanders cannot in general be said to be in want of necessary food, yet the country has several times been visited by great famines. These have been chiefly occasioned by the Greenland floating ice, which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the grass from growing, and puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small-pox has likewise been very fatal here; for, in the years 1707 and 1708, that disease destroyed sixteen thousand persons. The inhabitants, however, have now increased to about sixty thousand, the greatest number of whom live near the sea, along the coast.

Trade and Manufactures.—The commerce of this island is monopolized by a Danish company. The soil upon the sea-coast is tolerably good for pasture; and, though there is not any considerable town in the whole island, the Icelanders have several frequented ports. Their exports consist of dried fish, salted.

salted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woollen cloths, stockings, gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, lamb-skins, fox-furs of various colours, eider down, and feathers. Their imports consist of timber, fishing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horse-shoes, brandy, wine, salt, linen, and a little silk, exclusive of some necessities and superfluities for the more wealthy.

Although the Icelanders cannot procure instruction, like other nations, in the various trades, yet Nature has conferred on some of them sufficient address and genius to instruct themselves in the manufacture of every sort of household-utensils, whether of copper, iron, wood, or any other material. They succeed well enough for the purposes for which they are intended; but we cannot expect them to be either so well or so neatly made as by our workmen, who have served a long apprenticeship. There are some of them, however, who have as much ingenuity as our best mechanics; and there is scarcely a parish, but has one of the *Smidours*, or men acquainted with every kind of handicraft. They work either in wood or metal, according as they are desired; but they excel in wooden work, in building houses, in flooring or wainscoting rooms, as well as in manufacturing every kind of utensils, both large and small; in making scythes, constructing fishermen's boats' tackle, besides many other similar works. Others excel in iron-work; such as small hatchets, saws, large augers, blades for planes, knives, scythes, nails, horse-shoes, locks, keys, traps, and other articles of this description. Others manufacture in copper and brass various pieces of ornament; such as buttons, buckles, women's girdles, rings, the decorations of saddles and harness, &c.—Lastly, there are some who work very neatly in silver; they make various decorations for females, partly polished, partly embossed and chased, buttons, sheaths, handles for knives, &c. &c. These people are likewise extremely expert in inventing traps, snares, and hooks, for catching foxes, sea-dogs, birds, and salmon.

Revenue.—As Iceland affords no incitement for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Danish majesty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

Learning.—Poetry formerly flourished very much in Iceland; and we are informed that Egil Skallagrinnson, Kormack Ormundson, Glum Gierson, and Thorlief Jarlaa, were celebrated for their poetical talents. But the art of writing was not much in use till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and most probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Christian religion, the Latin characters were immediately

adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which only consists of sixteen letters, was found insufficient. The first Icelandish bishop, Isleif, founded a school at Skalholt; and soon after four other schools were founded, in which the youth were instructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and some parts of theoretic philosophy. From the introduction of the Christian religion here, till the year 1264, when Iceland became subject to Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the north, wherein the sciences were cultivated and held in esteem.

This period of time seems, however, to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any period since. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had considerable knowledge in morality, philosophy, natural history, and astronomy. Most of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and some of them have been printed. Sir Joseph Banks presented 162 Icelandish manuscripts to the British Museum. That gentleman visited Iceland in 1772; accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who published an account of their voyage, observes, that he found more knowledge among the lower class in Iceland than is to be met with in most other places; that many of them could repeat the works of some of their poets by heart; and that a peasant was seldom to be found, who, besides being well instructed in the principles of religion, was not also acquainted with the history of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional histories, that being one of their principal amusements.

We learn that John Areson, bishop of Hóla, employed John Matthieson, a native of Sweden, in establishing a printing-press in Iceland, about the year 1530; and the first book printed by him there was the *Breviarium Nidarosiense*. He also printed an ecclesiastical manual, Luther's catechism, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578; and the Icelandic bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office is now established at Hráppsey, in this island, at which several valuable books have been printed.

Religion.—The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches in the east, south, and west quarters of the island, are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Skalholt; and those of the north quarter are subject to the bishop of Hóla. The island is divided into 189 parishes, of which 127 belong to the see of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hóla. All the ministers are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly salary of 400 or 500 rix-dollars from the king, exclusive of what they have from their congregations.

The conduct of the clergy is very narrowly inspected into, as well as that of the people in general, in

in regard to religious matters; and the least fault is not suffered to go unpunished. An Icelander never passes a river, or any other dangerous place, without previously taking off his hat, and imploring the divine protection; and he is always thankful to God when he has passed the danger.

Government and History.—A Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, settled in Iceland in the ninth century, and found there inhabitants who were Christians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is said that the Norwegians also found among them Irish books, bells, and crosiers; and it is conjectured that the people who were there when the Norwegians arrived in the island originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at last obliged to submit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became subject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at first governed by an admiral, who was sent there every year to make the necessary regulations; but that mode has now been changed for many years, and a governor is appointed, who constantly resides in the country.

The ports and harbours of Iceland, particularly those of the southern quarter, were in former times much frequented by merchants, and first by those from Norway; afterwards by the Germans, and particularly by the Hamburgers, who came in great numbers. The English began to trade there in 1413, though without permission; and they

afterwards continued their traffic for a length of time, either by permission or secretly, because it often happened that commerce was absolutely forbidden with them on account of the disturbances which they excited in the country; but at that period the trade was of no great extent. John Gerricksen, and other Catholic bishops, several of whom came to this part of Iceland in the English vessels, bought merchandizes which they sold to foreigners, and thus created a considerable traffic. In this century fishing was carried on to a considerable extent; but the more this increased the more was rural economy neglected. The great plague at length occurred, and agriculture as well as other essential occupations were neglected, because every thing was in confusion; and this confusion, for a long time, gave rise to various abuses. About the year 1420, the vice-governors began openly to monopolize the commerce by trading with their own ships. Since which period the principal trade has centered in a commercial company. Owing to the unsettled state of Europe for the last five years, and the declaration of war between Denmark and Great Britain, this island has suffered considerably; which induced the British government, in 1810, to publish an order in council to declare the ports of Leith, Hull, and London, open to the ships of this and the Ferro islands where they are to be considered as stranger friends.

THE

FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS.

THESE islands are so called from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one island to another. They are about 25 in number, but only 15 are said to be inhabited. They lie between 61 and 63 degrees north latitude, and 6 and 7 degrees west longitude from London. The space of this cluster extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the westward of

Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-west. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4 or 5000, add little to the revenues of Denmark.

STROMOE, the largest island of the group, is about 24 miles long, and 8 broad. The climate is cold and moist.

NORWAY.

NORWAY*.

Name—Boundaries and Extent—Divisions, Chief Towns—Climate and Soil—Mountains—Forests—Rivers—Lakes—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Natural Curiosities—Manners and Customs of the People—Commerce—Revenue—Population—Religion—Laws—Government—History, &c.

Name.—THE term *Norway* is understood to mean the Northern Way, or Country; it was anciently called *Norriker*, or the Northern Kingdom.

Boundaries and Extent.—It is bounded on the south by the entrance into the Baltic Sea, called the Scaggerac, or Categat; on the west and north, by the Northern Ocean; and is divided from Sweden, on the east, by a long ridge of mountains. It lies between 58 and 71½ degrees north latitude, and 5 and 25 east longitude; being, according to the best estimation, including the province of Wardhuus, or Danish Lapland, 1100 miles in length, and 150 in breadth.

Divisions, Chief Towns, &c.—Norway is divided into four provinces, or governments: viz. *WARDHUUS*, in the north; *DRONTHEIM*, in the middle; *BERGEN*, in the west; and *AGGERHUUS*, in the south.

WARDHUUS, OR DANISH LAPLAND.

The province of Wardhuus is bounded on the north and west by the ocean; on the east by Russian Lapland; on the south by Swedish Lapland; and on the south-west by the government of Drontheim. It is 280 miles in length from east to west, 170 in breadth from north to south, and is divided into two parts; viz. *Nordland* on the east, and *Finmark* in the west. The former is extremely bleak and barren; but the latter has some less inhospitable tracts.

The chief town is *Wardhuus* (situated on the eastern side of Cape North), from whence the province takes its name; it is the seat of a governor, but only consists of a castle, a church, and a street of cottages, inhabited chiefly by fishermen.

DRONTHEIM,

The largest government in the kingdom; it lies along the coast of the North Sea, being about 500

miles in length from south to north, and 100 from east to west. It is divided into two parts; namely, the government of *Drontheim* properly so called, and the sub-government of *Salten*. This province was yielded to the Swedes in 1658; but the king of Denmark recovered it in 1660 by the treaty of Copenhagen. It is very thinly peopled, and not cultivated beyond 25 or 30 miles from the sea.

The only place worthy of notice is *Drontheim*, or *Nidrosia*, an ancient city, and formerly the capital of Norway. It is seated on the coast of the Northern Ocean, on a little gulf at the mouth of the river Nider, from whence it was anciently called *Nidrosia*. It is about 220 miles distant from Bergen to the north-east, and has a harbour frequented by small vessels, though very incommodious for large ones, the entrance being obstructed by rocks. This was formerly the residence of the kings of Norway; but the town being only built with timber, was several times burnt down, and is very much decayed. It has no ditches or fortifications, being only inclosed by a single wall. The castle is not strong, and sustained but a few days siege when the town was taken by the Swedes in 1658. The Danes retook it the same year, after a siege of ten weeks. It is the see of an archbishop, and the only one in Norway. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Olaus, was formerly a very magnificent building, but now lies almost in ruins, having been destroyed by fire in 1522. The town contains about 8000 inhabitants, and has a considerable trade, consisting in small masts, fir-deals, copper, iron, tar, goats skins, &c. for which they import spices, wine, brandy, vinegar, cheese, tobacco, coarse cloths, &c. The governor of this province has his seat here.

BERGEN

Comprises the most westerly part of Norway, and is surrounded by the sea on the south, south-west, west, and north. It is divided into the governments of *Bergen* properly so called, and *Stavinger*; and these are again subdivided into lesser districts, or præfectures. The chief towns are,

1. *Bergen*, the capital of the province, an ancient and famous sea-port, mentioned by Pomponius Mela and Pliny; it stands on a crooked bay,

* In the table presented to our readers in the general description of the Kingdom of Denmark, we inserted the dimensions of Danish or Norwegian Lapland: but, as this remote country is divided between the kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, we shall give the outline of each in our divisions of those countries; deferring the account of its manners, customs, &c. of the inhabitants, till Sweden has been described, to which by far the largest and most important provinces of Lapland pertain.

called Jeltefiord, into which the entrance is by a narrow strait, named Carmesundt, bordered on each side with high rocks for several miles together. The bay is so deep, that vessels of above 400 tons can enter it, and come to load and unload before the merchants' warehouses. The inhabitants, about 20,000 in number, are partly natives of this country, and partly Germans and Danes, whom the convenience of the town for trade has drawn thither, this being the principal mart and magazine for several merchandizes; divers sorts of fine furs, vast quantities of hides, tallow, fir-timber, &c. being brought hither from the neighbouring provinces, and shipped off to foreign parts. The inhabitants also carry on a considerable trade in stock-fish, which are taken on these coasts, and in the lakes, in January, and dried in the open air. The privileges granted by the king of Denmark to strangers make them flock to this town, and import thither those necessities of life which the country does not produce, as wheat, rye, biscuits, beer, wine, brandy, &c. which they exchange for the merchandizes above-mentioned. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Drontheim. The churches here are pretty well built, as are also all the edifices raised by the merchants of the Hans-Towns, and particularly their Exchange. The common people's houses were formerly of timber only, and covered with turf, so that the town was several times reduced to ashes; but since the year 1702, when it was almost entirely burnt down, the houses have been rebuilt with stone, so that it is now the largest, most beautiful, and populous town in Norway. On the west side of the town stands a royal citadel, in which the governor resides, and which serves also to defend the harbour. At Bergen is a factory called the *Cloister*, in which a community of merchants live, who are styled *Monks*, though they wear no particular habit, and have nothing in common with monks, except that they are not married.

2. *Stavanger*, or *Staffanger*, the chief town of the district of the same name, stands in the bay called Buckenfiord, which is very spacious, full of small islands, and 80 miles distant from Bergen to the south, and 100 from Christiana to the west. The harbour is spacious and safe, and would have a great trade, were it not for the neighbourhood of Bergen. The town is but small, yet it is the see of a bishop, suffragan to the archbishop of Drontheim. It is the residence of the governor of this district, who is subject to the governor of Bergen; and is defended by the strong fortress of Doeswyck, which stands to the sea-ward, about two miles from Stavanger. The district of Stavanger is the most temperate, the best peopled, and the best cultivated in all Norway; yet it has no other town of any note but Stavanger.

AGGERHUUS.

This province in extent, from south to north, is about 280 miles; and from east to west, in the south part, about 125; but it grows narrower northward, till it ends in a point. The land is mountainous and woody, but the vallies are tolerably fruitful, being watered by many lakes and rivulets, which pass through the country, and fall into the Baltic. The chief towns are,

1. *Christiana*, the capital of this province, seated at the bottom of a narrow bay, 30 miles distant from the Baltic, is the seat of the sovereign court of justice, where sentences are pronounced in the presence of the governor of the province, and the viceroy of the kingdom. This city owes its foundation to king Harold (cotemporary with Sweno, king of Denmark, surnamed Estritius, because he was the son of Margaret, named Estrita, daughter to Sweno II. and sister to Canute the Great), who called it *Obselo*. Harold kept his court here in the middle of the 11th century. When the Swedes were besieging the fort of Aggerhuus, in the year 1567, the Danes, in order to take from them all pretences for staying in the country, burnt the town of Obselo. A peace was concluded between them three years after; and Frederic II. of Denmark, under whose reign this town was burnt, dying in 1588, his successor Christian IV. rebuilt it in 1614, and called it *Christiana*, by which name it has been generally known ever since. It is the see of a bishop, under the archbishop of Drontheim. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Alward, and in it is shewn the sword of Haquin, one of their ancient kings, the hilt of which is of crystal, and is a great curiosity of art, as well as antiquity. The town is regularly built, of a considerable extent, carries on a great trade, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants. It has a work-house and two suburbs, called Waterland and Peper-Vigen; through the first runs a river, which rises in Maridalen. The city stands in 59 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, and in 10 degrees 15 minutes east longitude. Here are several sea-ports, particularly Heakeren, where the fishing-trade affords a pretty considerable income.

2. *Kongsberg*, in this government, contains about 11,000 souls, among whom are a congregation of Danes, and another of Germans. In the year 1686, a mint was set up in this town; and in 1689, the mine college was erected. Kongsberg is most remarkable for its silver mines, which are the richest in all Norway. These were discovered in 1623; upon which the town was immediately built, and peopled with German miners. In 1751, 41 shafts and 12 veins were wrought in the four riviers of this mine, in which 3502 officers, artificers, and labourers are usually employed. The rich

rich ore in this mine is found only in dispersed strata and interrupted veins. Even pure silver is sometimes dug out of it; and in 1647, some gold was found among the silver, of which king Christian IV. caused the famous Billen ducats to be coined, with this legend, *Vide Mira Domini*, "See the wonderful works of the Lord."

3. *Aggerhuus*, from which the province takes its name, lies on the bottom of the same bay, about 15 miles from Christiana, to the south-west. It has a strong castle, memorable for the brave resistance it made against the Swedish army, in the year 1567, which besieged it for eighteen weeks together, but was at last beaten off, and forced to retire.

4. *Friderickshall*, or *Frederickstadt*, is about 50 miles distant from the town of Aggerhuus, towards the south-east, well fortified, and of such importance that it is deemed the key of this kingdom. Charles XII. king of Sweden, sat down before it in the beginning of December 1718, and is said to have been killed there by a cannon-ball, the 11th of the same month, as he was viewing the trenches. King Frederic IV. ordered a pyramid, 20 feet high, to be erected on the spot where that hero fell.

Climate and Soil.—The climate of Norway varies according to its latitude, and its position towards the sea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the navigation practicable. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of October, and continues, with intense severity, to the middle of April; the waters being all that time frozen to a considerable thickness. Great caution must be used in such weather, in which an inexperienced and unguarded traveller may be deprived of his nose and ears. The natives cover their faces with a piece of gauze, and some rub them with snow; but in long journies over the highest mountains, where the air is much keener, and the winter quite insupportable, no precautions will avail, without the convenience of mountain-stoves, or houses with fire in them, which are kept at the public charge, for the repose and warmth of travellers. The Swedish history affords a melancholy instance of the impracticability of travelling over these mountains in the winter months. In February, 1719, seven thousand Swedish soldiers, with their officers, perished on the mountain of Ruden or Tydal, which separates Jemteland, in Sweden, from the diocese of Drontheim, without any other enemy than the extreme cold, which surprised them on the ridge of that mountain, where no one could come to their assistance. But the severity and inconvenience of this cold it has pleased the Creator to temper with some advantages, and a greater variety of preservatives against it than any other countries afford. This frost and snow

facilitate the conveyance of goods by land; for, without it, they can neither convey the timber they have felled to the water, nor carry their goods to market in their sledges.

In the summer months it is not only warm, but hot, from the reflection of the mountains and other causes, so that persons who have been born and brought up in sultry climates, might fancy themselves suddenly transported home. But these heats are of short duration. Though there cannot be a more decisive proof of the summer's heat in Norway, than that several vegetables, and particularly barley, grow up and ripen within six weeks or two months. It is certain, that where nature has but a short time to work, she accelerates her operations, and acts with greater energy. In the northern gardens it is seldom that the winter fruits can attain to their proper maturity, but those of the summer keep pace with the fruits of Denmark, where strawberries, cherries, and the like, are ripe so early as the first of July.

At Bergen the longest day is about 19 hours, and the shortest five. In summer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the sky, during the months of June, July, and August. But during the winter the climate is humid and foggy, scarcely a day passing without rain or sleet, which renders a residence here very disagreeable to foreigners.

The air is pure and salubrious in most parts of Norway, but more so in the middle and east side than on the western coast; for in the latter the air is damp, and the weather extremely variable, on which account the Norwegians are frequently afflicted with scorbutic disorders.

When the horizon, in the summer nights, is unclouded, it is so clear and bright, that at midnight one may read, write, and do all kinds of work as in the day; and in the most northern extremity of this country, (the district of Finmark,) the sun is continually in view during summer, being observed day and night to encircle the north pole, contracting its orbit, and then gradually enlarging it, till at length it leaves the horizon. On the other hand, in the depth of winter the sun is for some weeks invisible; all the light perceived at noon being a faint glimmering that continues about an hour and a half, which, as the sun does not then appear above the horizon, chiefly proceeds from the reflection of its rays on the highest mountains, whose summits are seen more clearly than any other objects. But the bountiful Creator has granted the inhabitants all possible assistance; for, besides the moonshine, which is rendered very bright in the vallies by reflection from the mountains, the people frequently receive as much light as is necessary for performing their ordinary business, from the *aurora borealis*, or northern lights.

While

While winter thus rages in the east of Norway, the lakes and bays on the west side are kept open by the warm exhalations of the ocean, though lying in a direct line with these frozen eastern parts; and the frosts are seldom known to last above a fortnight or three weeks. Even in the centre of Germany, which is 200 leagues nearer the line, the winters are generally more severe, and the frosts sharper, than in the diocese of Bergen; for the inhabitants here are often surprised at reading in the public papers of frost and snow in Poland and Germany, when they feel no such weather; and the learned Dr. Pontoppidan observes, that the harbours of Amsterdam, Hamburg, Copenhagen, and Lubeck, are much oftener frozen than those of Norway, where this seldom happens above two or three times in a whole century. Thus the winter at Bergen is so moderate, that the seas are almost always open to fishermen and mariners; and there the North Sea continues navigable during the whole winter as far as the 80th or 82d degree; and hence, while the inhabitants of the eastern parts have, by means of the ice and snow, the convenience of bringing their commodities in sledges to the market-towns; those of the western side, on the sea-coast, are at the same time employed in their profitable fisheries. The coast of Bergen is, however, so subject to frequent rains, that the men, whenever they go abroad, wear rain-hats, made like umbrellas; and the women secure themselves in all weathers, by wearing over their heads a black woollen or silk veil.

The western coast of Norway is surrounded by a great number of islands and rocks, which rise several fathoms above the surface of the water, and are a kind of rampart that defends the coast. They form abundance of good harbours; and in many places iron rings are fastened to them by the inhabitants, who are mostly fishermen or pilots, for mooring ships; where there is not sea-room or good anchorage. As the water is calm and smooth, they are of great service to coasters, the violence of the waves being broken against these barriers, while the open places are very dangerous, and every year prove fatal to many small vessels. The shore of Norway is generally steep and perpendicular, so that close to the rocks the depth of the sea is from one to four hundred fathoms. Several gulfs and creeks run from forty to sixty miles into the land; and in some of them, which are but from fifty to one hundred fathoms in breadth, there runs a narrow channel four hundred fathoms deep.

Mountains.—Norway is one of the most mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains, running from south to north, to pass one of which, called Ardanger, a man must travel about 70 English miles, and to

pass others, upwards of 50. Dofrefeld is supposed to be the highest mountain in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and that are passable only by slight wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top, and the whole forming a most surprising landscape. The activity of the natives in recovering their sheep and goats, when penned up, through a false step, in one of those rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himself to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, sitting on a cross stick, tied to the end of a long rope, and when he arrives at the place where the creature stands, he fastens it to the same cord, and it is drawn up with himself. The caverns that are to be met with in these mountains, are perhaps more wonderful than those in any other part of the world, though less known.

Forests.—The forests form the chief wealth of Norway. In most provinces immense sums are received from foreigners, for masts, beams, planks, &c. besides the home consumption for houses (built entirely with wood, beam upon beam), ships, bridges, moles, piles, fuel, &c.; likewise for the great number of foundries, which require vast quantities of small coal; and the quantity felled, and burned, to clear and manure the land, as well as the number of young trees used by the peasants as fences to their gardens, houses, &c. Besides the consumption, so much is exported, that sometimes such piles of it are seen in the ports, that one would imagine it must require a long time to remove them; yet the embarkations for England, Holland, France, or Spain, in a few days, sweep them all away, and a few weeks cover the quays again. The saw-works are the best manufactories in Norway, an infinite number of families getting a comfortable maintenance from them, together with the felling and floating of timber. A tenth of all sawed timber belongs to the king of Denmark, and forms a considerable part of his revenue.

The vast thick forests of Norway seem to remove the apprehension of the country being in want of common timber; but as to oaks, posterity will be at some loss for them, unless the forest-laws be more strictly executed, and young trees forbidden to be exported. To give the reader an idea of the value of a ship-mast he must be informed that a choice mast-tree, which, when standing, may be estimated at 100 rix dollars, or about £22 10s. English, cannot, after it is cut down, be conveyed to the sea-ports for less than double the prime cost; for, besides the many other trees required to form a kind

a kind of bed for it to slide on, lest it should be injured by the rocks, sometimes a hundred trees and upwards must be felled to make way for it, and labourers are employed to haul it in places impassable for horses. The red fir will stand several hundred years; and from the root the peasants extract tar, even a hundred years after the trunk has been cut down. This tar is a very profitable commodity.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.—The multitude of springs that issue from the mountains, and the vast masses of snow accumulated on their summits, which gently dissolve in summer, form many lakes (in some of which are floating islands, formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs), and a considerable number of rivers, the largest of which is the Glommen, Glamer, or Great River; but none of them are navigable far up the country; the passage being every where interrupted by rocks, and in some places by dreadful cataracts, in which the stream precipitates itself from the height of forty, fifty, and even a hundred fathoms. The bridges over these rivers are not walled, but formed of timber cases filled with stones, which serve for the piers on which the timbers are laid. The largest bridge of this kind has forty-three stone cases, and is a hundred paces in length. In those places where the narrowness and rapidity of the current will not admit of sinking these cases, thick masts are laid on each side of the shores, with the thickest end fastened to the rocks: one mast being thus laid in the water, another is placed upon it, reaching a fathom beyond it, and then a third or fourth in like manner, to the middle of the stream, where it is joined by other connected masts from the opposite side. Thus, in passing over the bridge, especially in the middle, it seems to swing, which to those who are not used to these bridges appears extremely dangerous, so that, filled with terror, they alight and lead over their horses.

In the year 1702, the noble family seat of Borge, near Fredericstadt, suddenly sunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyss a hundred fathoms in depth; and its site was instantly filled with water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which fourteen people and two hundred head of cattle perished, was occasioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

Animals.—The Norway horses are generally small, well proportioned, chiefly of a deep bay colour, with black manes and tails. Though fed only with hay, they are spirited, swift, and in good condition. They are very sure-footed; and ascend and descend the highest steeps, if ever so slippery, in a surprising manner. When feeding in the mountains, should they be attacked by a wolf or

bear, they shew great courage, fighting with their fore-legs, and generally come off victorious.

The Norway cows are small, and give little milk; but fodder is cheap, and the farmers keep a great number. In the spring, when first turned out, the husbandmen make a large fire in the fields, to which the cattle in the farm-yard all run, particularly in cold nights, and lay round it. For winter feed, the peasants cut off the young branches of trees in summer-time, tie them up in bundles, dry them, and bring them home by cart-loads.

There is nothing remarkable in the sheep but their standing together in the winter under the snow, and eating one another's wool, as in other snowy countries. The place where they collect themselves is discovered by the warm damp that rises above the snow. The country people keep so many goats, that from Bergen alone are shipped off annually 70 or 80,000 goat-skins, exclusive of several thousands dressed for Suffian, Corduan, and Russia leather. These creatures climb the rocks and steeps inaccessible to men. Wherever grass is to be found they will get at it, when no other gramineous animal can; but they often thus get themselves into such dangerous situations, as not to be able to stir either one way or another.

The cattle often fall down the precipices, and are destroyed. Sometimes they make a false step into the projection called a mountain-hammer, where they can neither ascend nor descend; on this occasion a peasant cheerfully ventures his life for a sheep or goat, descending from the top of a mountain by a rope of some hundred fathoms in length, till he reaches the place where he finds the animal, which he fastens to the rope, and it is drawn up along with himself. But the most amazing circumstance is, that he runs this risk with the help of only a single person, who holds the end of the rope, or fastens it to a rock, if there be one at hand proper for that purpose. There are instances of the assistant himself having been dragged down, sacrificing his life from his fidelity to his friend, on which both have perished. When a man or beast has thus the misfortune to fall, it is observed, that the air presses with such force against the falling bodies that they are not only deprived of life for some time before they reach the ground, but their bellies burst, and their entrails come out, which is always the case when they fall into deep water.

The elk is an animal whose form is between the horse and the stag, and is here called *equicervus*. They are so long-legged, that a man can stand upright under their belly; being of an ash colour, and having horns on their head, like deer, but not so long and round. They are harmless creatures, and keep about the houses in the winter; their flesh is much of the taste of venison; and the hide sells for a good price, being converted into buff leather.

The rein-deer is abundant in Norway. They run wild, and are shot and sold like other game.

The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious, being remarkable for not hurting children; but we cannot much credit the very extraordinary specimens of their sagacity recorded by the natives. They are hunted by little dogs; and some prefer the bear hams of Norway to those of Westphalia.

The wolf of this country is daunted at the least opposition, and only bold and daring against those who fly before him. Even a cow, or goat, that turns against him, will put him to flight. Many contrivances are used to destroy them.

The lynx, or lossen, in Norway called *goupe*, is something like a wolf, but smaller, of the cat or tyger kind. It is equally fierce and dangerous, tearing all to pieces that it can master. Its skin is light grey, or white, with black spots, like the panther, and is sold from eight to twelve rix-dollars each, according to the goodness. When a *goupe* is attacked by a dog, he throws himself on his back, in the manner of a cat, and turns up his fore-legs to defend himself; the dog, on this, lays hold, and thinks himself conqueror; but the *goupe* then makes use of his claws so effectually, as to flay his enemy alive.

The diminutive ermine is capable of destroying the elk or bear, by creeping into their ears when they lie asleep, and laying fast hold with their teeth; when the large animal feels himself thus attacked, he begins to run about, roaring till he exhausts himself; then he becomes faint, droops, languishes, and dies. In the same manner it will steal upon a sleeping eagle, and let this bird fly away with him upon its back, where he continues gnawing, till, by the great effusion of blood, the bird drops down dead on the ground.

The beaver, an amphibious animal, is found in Norway. It is shaped like a long-bodied dog, with short legs, a flat small head, round ears and eyes, a large thick and smooth tail, which weighs several pounds, the skin of which is covered with fish scales, and is so much of the fishy kind, as to taste like fish, and cannot bear to be long out of water; the rest of his body is flesh. His hinder feet are webbed like those of a goose, and of the same fleshy nature. As his tail cannot long be out of water, the beaver builds his house in such a manner that he can always have his hind part hanging in a place which is open from ice all the winter, that he may continually throw his tail forwards and backwards in free water. To secure this advantage, even where the water rises and falls, he builds, always at the water-edge, a wooden house, three stories high, and regularly raised above one another, like a little tower, where he and his mate have each their separate lodging and bed. To fell the trees for building of these houses, the wise Creator has

furnished this little animal with a tooth, four or five inches long, and sharp at the end, not unlike a boar's tusk; with this, as with a small axe, he prepares the wood for the joists, fits all together, and lays them so, over one another, that they will not fall.

White and red foxes are found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs ashore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crabs lay hold of.

The most pernicious vermin here is a little animal called the *lemmus*, or lemming, which is between the size of a rat and a mouse; the tail is short, and turned up at the end; and the legs are also so short that they scarce keep the belly from the ground. Once or twice in every twenty years, they assemble from their secret abodes in prodigious numbers, and proceed from Kolen's Rock, which divides the Nordland manor from Sweden, held to be their peculiar and native place, marching in vast multitudes through Nordland and Finmark to the Western Ocean, and other bodies of them through Swedish Lapmark to the Sinus Bethnicens, devouring all the grass and vegetables in their way. They do this in a direct line, going straight forward into the rivers or the sea: if they meet with a boat in any river, they run in at one end or side, and out again at the other, in order to keep their course, carrying their young with them on their backs or in their mouths; and if they meet with peasants, who come to oppose them, they will stand undaunted, and bark at them like dogs. This evil is, however, of short duration; for, on entering the sea, they swim as long as their strength lasts, and then are drowned. If any are stopped in their course, and unable to reach the sea, they are killed by the frosts of winter; and if any of these escape, most of them die as soon as they eat the new grass.

Toads and snakes are only met with in the southern parts of this country, and these are less poisonous than in warmer climates. Lizards are here of various colours, as brown, green, and striped; those that are green are found in the fields, and the others in the cracks and holes in the rocks near the sea.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour; his eye resembles that of a pheasant, and he is said to be the largest of all eatable birds. Norway also produces two kinds of eagles, the sea and the land: the former is large, subsists on aquatic food, and sometimes darts on large fish with such force, that being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged by them into the water and drowned.

The land-eagle is somewhat less than the other, and spotted

spotted with grey; it haunts the highest places in the country, and frequently kills hares, sheep, lambs, and the like animals, as well as birds. The farmers say, that he will sometimes attack a deer; in which case he soaks his wings in water, and then covering them with sand, flies about the deer's face, which commonly blinds him for a time, when the pain makes him run about as if mad, and he frequently falls down a rock and breaks his neck, upon which the eagle seizes upon him for his prey.—Young children are said to be sometimes carried away by this ravenous bird.

Nature seems to have adapted these aerial inhabitants for the coast of Norway, and produced a species of mankind peculiarly fitted for rendering them serviceable to the human race. These are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the steepest rocks to bring away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are parboiled in vinegar; the flesh is sometimes eaten by the peasants, who generally relish it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern districts, are trained up to be assistants to these birdmen in taking their prey.

It is almost impossible to give a just idea of the fatigue and danger with which the people search for the birds in the high and steep rocks, many of which are above 200 fathoms perpendicular. They either climb up these rocks, or are let down from the top by a strong and thick rope. When they climb up, they have a large pole of 11 or 12 ells in length, with an iron hook at the end. They who are underneath in a boat, or stand on a cliff, fasten this hook to the waistband of the man's breeches who climbs, by which means they help him up to the highest projection he can reach, and fix his feet upon. They then help up another to the same place; and when they are both up, give each his bird-pole and long rope, which they tie at each end round their waist. The one then climbs up as high as he can; and, where it is difficult, the other, by putting his pole under his breech, pushes him up till he gets to a good standing place. The uppermost of the two then helps the other up to him with a rope: and thus they proceed till they get to the part where the birds build, and there they search for them.

When they have many dangerous places to climb, one always seeks a convenient spot where he can stand secure by being able to hold himself fast, while the other is climbing about. If the latter should happen to slip, he is held up by the other, who stands firm; and when he has passed in safety those dangerous places, he fixes himself in the same manner, that he may enable the other to come safe to him; and then they clamber about after birds where they please. But sometimes ac-

cidents happen: for if one does not stand firm, or is too weak to support the other when he slips, they both fall and are killed; and every year some perish in this manner. On their reaching the places that are seldom visited, they find the birds so tame, that they may take them with their hands, they being unwilling to leave their young; but where they are wild, they throw a net over them in the rock, and entangle those that are flying, with a net fixed to the end of their poles. Thus they catch a vast number of fowls; and the boat keeping underneath them, they throw the dead birds into it, and soon fill the vessel.

If the weather continue favourable, and there be a great deal of game, the birdmen sometimes continue eight days together on the rocks; where they find holes or caverns in which they can securely take their repose. In this case they draw up provisions with lines, and boats are kept coming and going to carry away the game they have caught. As many of the rocks are so steep and dangerous that they cannot possibly climb up them, they are then let down from above by a strong rope, 80 or 100 fathoms long, and about three inches in thickness. One end of it the birdman fastens about his waist, and then drawing it between his legs, so that he can sit on it, is let down with his bird-pole in his hand, by six men at top, who let the rope sink by degrees, but lay a piece of timber on the edge of the rock, for it to slide on, to prevent its being torn to pieces by the sharp edge of the stones. Another line is fastened round the man's waist, which he pulls to give signs when he would have them pull him up, let him lower, or keep him where he is. He is in great danger of the stones loosening by the rope, and falling upon him; he therefore wears a thick furred cap, well lined, which secures him from the blows he may receive from small stones; but if large ones fall, he is in the greatest hazard of losing his life.

Thus do these poor men often expose themselves to the most imminent danger, merely to get a subsistence for their families. There are some, indeed, who say there is no hazard in it, after they are accustomed to it; but at first the rope turns round with them till their heads are giddy, and they can do nothing to save themselves. Those who have learned the art, make a play of it; they put their feet against the rock, throw themselves several fathoms out, and push themselves into what place they please. They even keep themselves out on the line in the air, and catch with their poles numbers of birds flying out and into their holes. The greatest art consists in throwing themselves out, so as to swing under the projection of a rock, where the birds gather together; here they fix their feet, loosen themselves from the rope, and fasten it to a stone, to prevent its swinging out of their reach.

When

When a man has done this, he climbs about, and catches the birds either with his hands or the pole; and when he has killed as many as he thinks proper, he ties them together, fastens them to the small line, and, by a pull, gives a sign for those above to draw them up. When he wants to be drawn up, he either gives a signal to those above, or, with his belt full of birds, works himself up with his hands and feet. If there are not people enough to hold the rope, he fixes a post in the ground, fastens his rope to it, and slides down without any help; after which he goes to work as before. In some places there are steep clefts of prodigious size lying under the land, and yet more than 200 yards above the water, which are likewise very difficult to be got at. They help one another down these clefts in the above manner; and taking a strong rope with them, fasten it here and there in the cleft where they can; and leave it all the summer; they will run up and down upon this, and take the birds very easily.

They eat part of these birds fresh, and part is hung up to dry for the winter season. They afford the inhabitants a good maintenance, partly from their feathers, which are plucked and sent to foreign parts, and partly from their flesh and eggs.

The shark is common in these seas, of which there are several species. The whole tribe have no bones, excepting that of the back, but only a cartilaginous, or grisly substance, instead of bone. They do not, like most kind of fish, eject their spawn, but are viviparous, and bring forth their young alive, five or six at a birth. Their skin is hard, rough, and full of prickles; and their fins are used by turners, carvers, &c. to polish their work. The mouth of the shark is not placed like that of any other kind of fish, but underneath a long snout, designed, as it were, to prevent their destroying fish in too great quantities. "Was it not," says Sir Hans Sloane, in his *Voyage to Jamaica*, "for the necessity it is under of turning on its back to catch its prey, at which time the pursued fish escape, there would be nothing that could avoid it; for it is a swift swimmer, has great strength, and the largest swallow of the fish tribe existing. Some of them are from 40 to 50 feet long."

The whale here, at certain seasons, is very generally met with. They are seen on the western coast, in vast quantities, about January. At this time the sea appears covered with them; and, from the water spouted from their nostrils continually, they have the appearance of a large city, with a great many chimnies smoking.

The coast of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings, which form great part of the food of the common people; while the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torsk fishes follow them to feed

upon their spawn, and are taken in prodigious numbers. Anchovies are here salted, and barrelled up with spices for exportation. They differ very little from the herring, except in size, being much smaller. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea-scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The sturgeon is in fine perfection in the North Sea. They approach the shore about Midsummer, with the summer herrings, which they drive along so rapidly that they will raise themselves above the surface of the water in the pursuit; they do not swim together in shoals, or extend in breadth, but follow one another in a straight line, laying hold of each other's tail. As this fish is not armed with teeth, either for use or defence, the marks of Providence appear in its peculiar structure, having thick broad scales, or plates of bone, which cover its body as a mail, and are its best defence.

The coast of Norway is remarkable for its cod-fishery, where this fish is dried, or salted and barrelled in great quantities. Upwards of 20,000 tons of dried cod have been exported from Bergen in one year, besides a quantity pickled in casks; great numbers are also exported from Drontheim, Christiansand, and Stavanger; and for this purpose alone are annually imported 40,000 tons of Spanish and French salt. Barrelled cod is chiefly sold in the Baltic; but dry cod at Hamburg, Bremen, and Amsterdam, from whence it is carried up the rivers, all over Germany. Several tons are exported to Flanders and England, but not so many as to Italy, Spain, and other countries in the Mediterranean.

The walrus, or sea-horse, is seen sometimes on this coast, but not so frequently as about Iceland or Spitzberg, where it is found in incredible numbers, several thousands being often seen together. Their body and head are like those of a large cow; and they have short hair on their skin, like the seal; but what is most remarkable, their two large teeth, or tusks, which project out of their mouth, are full 18 inches long, and are very good ivory.

The Norwegians have great variety of shell-fish, besides oysters, muscles, cockles, lobsters, crabs, &c. in common with other countries. Oysters are here pickled, barrelled, and exported: some of them are of a vast size. In the diocese of Christiansand there is a pearl-fishery, belonging to the king of Denmark, and carried on at his expence. They are given to the queen as one of the regalia of the kingdom of Norway. These pearls are the produce of a small fresh-water muscle, and are found in certain rivers and brooks. There is a manager or intendant presiding over the fishery. The pearl is generally

generally found in that part of the fish which is called the *beard* in the oyster, and sometimes on both sides; but the pearls are always flat on that side that grows to the shell. There are some Norway pearls not inferior to the oriental ones, but the number of these is not very considerable.

One of the most curious fish found in these waters is the sea-urchin, or sea-apple, a name that represents the size and figure of the thin and tender shell that surrounds this extraordinary animal, which is very common on the coast of Norway. They are of various sizes, from that of a walnut to the head of a new-born infant: some are of the form of a cone, and others are quite round, except the under part, which is pretty flat, and of these are the greatest number. The shell is covered with a multitude of small sharp prickles, like small pins, which they probably shed once a year, and have new ones. When they are just taken out of the sea they have a beautiful greenish lustre; but their greatest beauty appears when they are dried, boiled, and the prickles rubbed off. This beauty consists in certain regular interchangeable stripes of a cylindrical form, running from the top to the bottom; some are white, others of an orange colour, others are of a light red, and others of a deep red; and these stripes are strewn over with as many little white knobs as there were originally prickles. When this fine shell is broken, which is easily done, there is found in it a quantity of slime and water, with a small fish, of a black, or dark red colour; and from this little body others run into all parts of the shell a great number of fine threads, that seem only composed of a thicker slime, and have a communication with the external prickles; and a yellow spawn is disposed in stripes between those. The fish lies stretched from the bottom to the top of the shell, where there is an almost imperceptible opening, through which the excrements pass. The mouth, which is extremely curious, is formed of five bones, part convex and part concave, all running to a small point, where they join together like the bill of a bird, and have some resemblance to a flower.

Here is also that extraordinary production of nature, ranked among fishes, called the sea nettle, and is of two kinds: one comprehending those that always remain fixed in one place, like sea plants; and the other consists of those that change their place. Reaumur deems them real animals, because they have organized bodies, and give signs of feeling when they are touched; besides which, they lay hold of shell-fish, and others, which they eat; and have also a progressive motion. These nettles assume so many different shapes, that it is impossible to describe them under any determinate figure; but, in general, their outward form approaches nearest to a truncated cone, having its

base fixed to some stone, to which it is found always adhering. Some are greenish, others whitish, and others again of a rose colour; there are others likewise of all the degrees of brown.

The wandering sea-nettles have nothing common with the preceding except in the name, and they have different appellations in different places, as also according to their sizes. They belong to that genus which is described in encyclopædias by the name of *Animal Flowers*.

Many Norwegians of credit have affirmed, that the Northern Ocean produces some very extraordinary animals, the existence of which had been doubted by mankind in general: these are, the merman, mermaid, great sea-snake, and kraken or korven; of which, for the satisfaction of the curious reader, we shall here give some account.

A learned writer, speaking of the merman and mermaid, tells us, that "they are sea animals which bear some resemblance to the human form. In the year 1719, one of the males of this species was found dead on a point of land in Norland. His colour was of a dark grey; the face resembled that of a man, with a large mouth, and flat nose; the arms were attached to the sides by a thin membrane, and terminated in paws like those of the sea-calf. The body tapered into a fish's tail like that of a porpoise; and the length extended to three fathoms. The mermaid is formed in the same manner, abating the difference of sex, which is distinguished like that of the human race. These creatures have been seen of various magnitudes, from two feet to three fathoms, and have been found in many parts of the North Seas.

"Three fishermen of Elsineur, in Denmark, being examined upon oath before the privy counsellor, Frederick Van Gram, declared, that in the month of July, 1723, in calm weather, between Hveen and Saedland, they approached, in their boat, something that just floated on the surface like a dead body, which lay without motion till they were within seven or eight fathoms of it; then it sunk instantaneously, and rose again nearly in the same place. There he stood near a quarter of an hour, staring at them; and was then above the waters to his breast. They, being terrified at the sight of this monster, began to row away; then he blew up his cheeks, uttered a kind of muttering roar, and dived under water. He appeared like an old man, with broad shoulders, and a small head, covered with short, black, curled hair; his eyes were hollow; his face meagre and weather-beaten, and his skin was coarse and hairy.

One of these deponents further declared, that about twenty years before, he had seen a mermaid, with long hair and large breasts. The marmiele, or marmate, belongs to the same class, and is perhaps the young of this family; it is found of

different sizes, and often caught on hooks by the fishermen of Norway. Some are no bigger than infants half a year old, others are as large as children of three years of age.

"In the year 1746, Captain Laurence de Tercy, of Bergen, shot a sea-snake, which immediately disappeared; and when the boat was rowed near the place, the water appeared tinged with blood. The head of this animal, which it held at least two feet above the surface of the water, was of a greyish colour, and resembled the head of a horse; the mouth was very large and black, the eyes were of the same colour, and a long white mane hung down from its neck, and floated on the sea. Besides the head, they saw seven or eight coils of this snake, about the distance of a fathom one from the other."

We are amongst the very last of writers who would indulge any sort of superstition; but that such an animal as is above described has been found in the northern seas, we have not the smallest doubt. Torfæus speaks of it in his work on Norway; and Bishop Pontoppidan, in his history of that country, (vol. ii. p. 302,) asserts that there are several species of it. Childrey asserts it as a fact, that some fishermen caught one on the coast of Suffolk, in 1187; another was taken in Yorkshire, in 1535; and one is confidently asserted to have been seen by persons of undoubted veracity on the north-eastern coast of Scotland in 1809.

The kraken, or koryen, is the most surprising creature in these seas, and perhaps in the whole world. This animal is of the polypus kind, but seemingly a mile and a half in circumference. The Norwegian fishermen sometimes, in a summer-day, find no more than 20 or 30 fathoms water, where the depth used to be 80 or 100; and here they catch great plenty of cod and ling. They know the kraken is below them, and that they are fishing upon his back. When they perceive, by their lines, that the water grows more and more shallow, they judge he is rising slowly to the surface, and row away with great expedition. At a proper distance they lie upon their oars, and in a few minutes part of him appears above the water like a number of small islands and sand banks, covered with sea-weeds, and abounding with a great variety of fish, that leap about, and roll off his sides into the water. At length a great number of pellucid antennæ rise upon his back, as large and as high as the masts of moderate vessels: by means of these instruments or tentacula, he moves himself and gathers in his food, which consists of small fishes. After he has remained a little time at the surface, he begins to sink again gradually; and this motion produces a dangerous swell and whirlpool in the water. In all probability, the back of this huge monster has been mistaken for the floating

islands which have been described by so many voyage writers.

Such a trade is here carried on in lobsters, that every spring there are never less than 30 or 40 lobster-busses, from London and Amsterdam, which are loaded with them, each having wells capable of containing 12,000 lobsters alive. A lobster in Norway, eight inches long, is valued at one penny sterling, of a less size one half-penny: at this low rate they produce annually 10,000 rix-dollars, that is £2,250 sterling, in one diocese.

In Norway are lizards, frogs, snails, grasshoppers, spiders, caterpillars, flies, ants, worms, &c. common to other countries; but the one called the cluster-worm is peculiar to this. It seems to be a congeries of animals, and consists of a great number of small worms, gathered, and extended a great way along the earth, just like a rope of many fathoms, a finger and a half, or two fingers broad. Each worm is not thicker than a piece of coarse thread, and as long as a barley-corn, of a watery colour, and a black spot on the head. These worms are found by millions, continually crawling upon each other, yet so that the whole company constantly follow, and leave a path behind them like a drawn line.

Vegetables.—Norway produces most sorts of grain; and the pastures and meadows are fertile. Several kinds of esculent and garden vegetables are found here in gardens; and there is a kind of northern turnip, called *naper*, which is sold in the cities in great quantities: they are sometimes very large, and as flat as a dish. There are also many wild plants, the infusion of one of which some of the inhabitants drink in the manner of tea, and deem it an admirable pectoral. The scurvy is a prevailing disorder in Norway, and therefore we find that Nature has bountifully supplied that country with a profusion of antiscorbutic herbs, such as angelica, rose-wort, gentian, cresses, trefoil, sorrel, scurvy-grass, &c. Grapes, peaches, and apricots, do not ripen well here, though plums do: but apples, pears, and cherries, are met with every where. With respect to fruit trees, Norway is inferior to most countries in Europe.

Minerals.—Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of stone, but no flints. The magnet is found in the iron-mines. Some of the mountains contain several of the most beautiful kinds of marble, some white, others veined with blue, and others variegated with a variety of colours; there is likewise black marble spotted with white, green marble with greyish veins, and blue marble with white veins. They also contain such quantities of the magnet or load-stone, that some tons of them have been exported: they likewise yield the asbestos, of which incombustible linen and paper have been made, and which is thus described

described by Dr. Pontoppidan, bishop of Bergen: "Having heard of some wood petrified by a certain spring, I wrote," says he, "for some samples, and a large parcel of it was sent me. At first I thought it resembled hazel that had lain a long time in the water; but, upon a narrow inspection, and drawing out some of the filaments, I found it to be amianthus, much finer than the Greenland stone-flax which the Reverend Mr. Egede says is used there as wick in the lamps, without being in the least wasted, while supplied with oil or fat. This amianthus, from the softness and fineness of its fibres, deserves to be called stone-silk, rather than stone-flax: I also made a wick for a lamp of it, and it was not consumed; but its light being much dimmer than that produced by cotton, I laid it aside. I have also in my possession a piece of paper of this asbestos, which when thrown into fire is not destroyed; but what was written on it totally disappears.

"The manner of preparing this stone-silk, or stone-flax, is this:—After being softened in water, it is beaten with a moderate force, till the fibres, or long threads, separate from each other; afterwards they are carefully and repeatedly washed till clear of all terrene particles; then the flax is dried in a sieve: all that remains now is to spin these fine filaments, wherein great care is required; besides which, the fingers must be softened with oil, that the thread may be the more supple and pliant."

Here are silver mines, which are extremely valuable, and give employment to several thousand persons; the principal of these is at Kongsberg. Other silver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many silver masses that have been discovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be seen at the Royal Museum at Copenhagen.

One of the most ancient and rich of all the mines, named *Old God's Blessing*, has sometimes within a week yielded several hundred pounds weight of rich ore. This mine never fails to fill the beholder with amazement at its astonishing depth, which is no less than 180 perpendicular fathoms; and the circumference at the bottom forms a clear of some hundreds of fathoms. Here the sight of 30 or 40 piles, burning on all sides in this gloomy cavern, and continually fed, in order to mollify the stone in the prosecution of the mines, seems, according to the common idea, an image of hell; and the swarms of miners, covered with soot, and bustling about in habits according to their several employments, may well pass for so many devils, especially when, at a signal that a mine is going to be sprung in this or that course, they roar aloud *Berg-livet! Berg-livet!* "Take care of your lives!"

There are many copper-mines; and their importance may be conceived from this circumstance, that, besides the millions which, for a number of years past, have accrued from them to private persons, the tenths alone bring an annual revenue to the crown of 30 or 40,000 rix-dollars, or near £10,000; and, upon a Swedish invasion, a draught of 5000 effective men has been made out of the workmen in these mines.—Next to the timber, iron is one of the most profitable products of Norway, several hundred thousand quintals being annually exported, partly in bars, and partly in cast iron, as stoves, cannon, pots, kettles, and the like; the clear profit of which is estimated at 3, or 400,000 rix-dollars, or £90,000 sterling. Here are also to be met with sulphur, vitriol, and alum.

Natural Curiosities.—On the coast, latitude 67 deg. is that dreadful vortex or whirlpool, called by navigators the *navel of the sea*, and by some *Malestrom*, or *Moskoestrom*. The island of Moskoe, from whence this stream derives its name, lies between the mountain of Hesleggen in Lofoden, and the island Ver, which are about one league distant; and between the island and coast on each side the stream makes its way. Between Moskoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moskoe and Ver it is so shallow as not to afford passage for a small ship. When it is flood, the stream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moskoe with a boisterous rapidity, and at ebb returns to the sea with a violence and noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth or extent, so violent, that if a ship comes near it, it is immediately drawn irresistibly into the whirl, and there disappears, being absorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is dashed to pieces against the rocks; and just at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for about a quarter of an hour, it rises again in scattered fragments, scarcely to be known for parts of a ship.

When it is agitated by a storm, it has reached vessels at the distance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themselves in perfect security. It is hardly possible to conceive a situation with more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the sudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of the whirlpool, of which the noise and turbulence, still increasing as it is approached, are an earnest of quick and inevitable destruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of despair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impossible, and see before them the dreadful abyss into which they are to be plunged, and dashed among the rocks at the bottom. Animals which have come too near the vortex,

vortex, have expressed the utmost terror when they found the stream irresistible, and even whales are frequently carried away by it; the moment they feel the force of the water, they struggle against it with all their might, bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to swim to the island to prey upon the sheep.

Kircher was of opinion that the Malestrom is a sea-vortex, which attracts the flood under the shore of Norway, and discharges it again in the Gulf of Bothnia; but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the shattered fragments of whatever happens to be sucked down by it. The large stems of firs and pines rise again so shivered and splintered, that the pieces look as if covered with bristles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occasioned by the contraction of the stream in its course between the rocks.

There is a wonderful cavern in the mountain of Dolsteen, similar to that in the Peak of Derbyshire: its entrance is twelve feet broad, and six feet high. As soon as it is entered, the breadth and height increases to the dimensions of a large church, the sides of which are perpendicular, and the roof vaulted. About the middle there is a descent, like steps, which leads so low, that those who are within, hear the dashing of the waters (for it joins the sea) over their heads. There are more steps, that lead still lower, but no person has hitherto been courageous enough to venture farther; stones have often been thrown down, and the echo of their fall has continued for a minute; but whether they fell on water or on rock, could never be distinguished. The length of this cavern may be judged of by two candles being burnt out in going through and returning.

Persons, Dispositions, &c. of the Inhabitants.—

The Norwegians are in general robust, tall, well-made, and lively. The peasants who live among the mountains, are generally taller than the rest, and have a degree of severity in their countenances. Along the coast they are more corpulent and phlegmatic, and have a rounder visage. From the purity of the air, and the exercise they take, they are naturally of a cheerful disposition, and have a constant series of good health. A Norwegian of 100 years of age is not accounted past his labour; and, in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Danish Majesty at Fredericshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 600 years. They are inured to cold and hardships from their childhood, and will run about bare-footed on the ice, in the latter end of November. The mountaineer-woodmen have their beards often loaded with icicles, their bosoms filled with snow, and their breasts seem as hairy as their chins.

The hair and eyes of the Norwegians are lighter than those of most other nations; and a dark complexion here is as rare as a fair one in France or Italy; for we find that the climate changes here, and in all northern countries, hares, partridges, and other animals, from a dark or brown colour, to the finest white. The farther we proceed from the equator, the more is the black colour of the inhabitants lost.

The cold in Norway and Norden by no means obstructs the growth of the body; obvious by the complete stature of the people in these countries; whereas the Laplanders, Greenlanders, and Samoides, are all a short, thick-set race, and of a dark-brown complexion, certainly occasioned by the intense cold in that climate.

The Norwegians are in general dextrous, active, penetrating, and ingenious, especially in all kinds of mechanical performances. Every inhabitant is an artisan, and supplies his family in all its necessities with his own manufactures; so that there are few hatters, shoemakers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, or joiners, by profession; all these trades being carried on in every farm-house. They never think a boy can be an useful member of society, nor a good man, unless he be master of some of these. In the Royal Museum at Denmark, there is a bust of Christian V. carved in a certain wood called *been-wood*, by a shepherd who, in the year 1688, when the king went to Drontheim, stood in the road to see his majesty pass, and received so strong an impression of his face, that he was able to represent every lineament and feature to the life, without having ever seen the original but that time. At Arendel, they built ships from 200 to 300 lasts burden, and all by imitation, without any rules of art.

The capacity of the Norwegians for literature is not inferior to their skill in mechanics and bodily exercises; and if they had the same opportunities for improvement as their neighbours in Denmark, they would make as rapid a progress.

The Norwegians are remarkable for civility, and a courteous demeanour, being very obliging and willing to serve others. Their behaviour is not affected, but natural, and may be looked upon as the particular genius of the country.

The skill of the Norwegians in maritime affairs is well known. They have a genius for all warlike enterprises, are not easily repulsed, but will support the honour of their country, and undergo the greatest fatigues with very little rest or nourishment. The Norwegian army consists of 30,000 effective men, besides 14 or 15,000 sailors, which all Europe can hardly match.

Diseases.—Though Norway is in general a very healthy country, yet it has its peculiar diseases. Among those that most appear, is a kind of itch, probably

probably owing to the people eating a great quantity of fat fish; it is a sort of leprosy that breaks out in boils on the face. There is also a disease which seizes the patient, at first, with violent shooting pains, flying from one part of the body to another, and often breaking out in sores and ulcers. Another is a kind of epilepsy, but seldom so violent as in other countries, which some attribute to the eider-down beds on which they lie. They have remedies for them all, except a certain fever, that appears seldom, but is contagious and epidemic. It resembles the distemper which soldiers are apt to catch when encamped on damp places: it is malignant and painful, and, when it rages, carries off great numbers.

Customs, Manners, &c.—There is a great difference between the diet of those who live in the country, and the inhabitants of trading towns, a great part of which consists of Danes, Germans, Dutch, and English, who make their bread, and dress their viands, in the Danish fashion. Milk is very good and rich; and as to wines, spices, &c. greater quantities of these are imported than there is occasion for, or good economy requires. The merchants live here in a more elegant manner than the *noblesse* of other countries. All kinds of wines are so common in Norway, that it may be questioned whether more is not consumed there in private families than even in wine countries.

The peasant rigidly adheres to the customs and manner of living of his forefathers; and as he follows them in other things, so does he in his modes of eating and drinking. Bread, which is the chief support of life, is not made of rye, except on festivals, but of oatmeal, and in flat round cakes, extremely thin, and as large as a small dish, which they call *flat brod*; it much resembles our sea-biscuits, and will keep a year, if put in a dry place. The oldest is thought to be the best: and in former times, the woman was esteemed a good housewife that saved for her son's wedding a piece of bread that she had baked for his christening. •

In times of scarcity the peasants are obliged to have recourse to an old custom, as a disagreeable but sure method of preserving life. They take the bark of the fir-tree, boil, and dry it before the fire, then grind it to meal, and mix a little oatmeal with it. It has a bitter and resinous taste, and does not afford much nourishment; but even in the most plentiful times they will occasionally eat it, that they may be prepared against a time of scarcity, which however does not happen once in a century. In the province of Bergen, they import a great deal of grain from Denmark and places round the Baltic, and keep their magazines full. The peasants make themselves a kind of hasty-pudding of oatmeal and barley-meal, which they call soup, and in which they sometimes boil a pickled herring, or

a half-salted mackarel or salmon. They kill cows, sheep, and goats, for winter stock, which they pickle, cut in thin slices, dry in the wind, and eat like hung beef: this they call *skarke*, and it requires a ploughman's stomach to digest it. Their general drink is small beer in winter, milk and water in summer, and strong beer at Christmas; and they are fond of smoking tobacco.

The ceremonies of marriage, &c. are here performed in the same manner as in other Christian countries; but their funeral ceremonies still contain vestiges of their former paganism: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpse is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In some places the mourners frequently kneel down and ask forgiveness of the corpse, if ever they had offended him.

Dress.—The Norwegians who live in towns have nothing particular in their dress; but the peasants differ much from these: those which are called *strile-farmers* have their breeches and stocking all of a piece, something like the Hussars, with a wide, loose jacket, made of a coarse woollen cloth, called *wadmél*. Their waistcoats are of the same; and some that will appear finer than ordinary, cover the seams, and put a border all round, of the same sort of stuff, but of a different colour, which looks like lace, and has a gay appearance. The Hardanger peasants are particular for wearing black clothes edged with red, which distinguishes them from their neighbours; the Vaasserne wear all black; about Soynefiord they wear black and yellow; so that the inhabitants almost of every parish in the province vary in the colour of their clothes. They wear a hat flapped all round, or a little brown, grey, or black cap on their heads: this last is a sort of quarter-cap, made quite round, and the seams are ornamented with black ribbands. They have shoes of a peculiar fashion, without heels or soles, which consist of two pieces: the upper-leather, which sets close to the foot, to which the other is joined in a great many plaits or fold. In winter, and when they travel, they wear a sort of half-boots, that reach up to the calves of their legs; these are laced on one side, something like a Roman buskin. When they travel on the rocks in the snow, that they may not sink too deep, they put on what they call *travieres*, which are round like the hoop of a small barrel, worked across with twigs or wicker, and this keeps them up; but as this way of travelling is troublesome, when they have a long way to go, they put on skates about as broad as the foot, but six or eight feet long, and pointed before; these are covered underneath with seal-skin, so that the smooth grain of the hair turns backward towards the heel, such as they travel with in Lapland. With these snow-skates they run about on the snow faster than the pace of any

any horse; and with these the corps of soldiers, called *keir-lobere*, or skaters, in time of war, march with great expedition, like the Hussars.

The male peasant never wears a neckcloth or any thing of the kind, except when he is dressed; for his neck and breast are always open, and he suffers the snow to beat into his bosom, which he esteems an ornament; but, on the contrary, he covers the veins in his wrist close, to keep them warm, binding them round with a woollen fillet, which goes several times round the wrist, and is supposed to contribute to their strength. About their body they wear a broad leather belt, ornamented with convex brass plates; to this belt hangs a brass chain, which holds their *tolle-knife*, or their large knife, gimblet, and other tackle.

The women's dress has likewise its distinctions; when at church, and at genteel assemblies, they wear jackets laced close, with leather girdles, and silver ornaments about them, worth 16 or 20 rix-dollars. They wear also a silver chain, three or four times round the neck, with a gilt medal hanging at the end of it. Their handkerchiefs and caps are almost covered with small silver, brass, and tin-plate buttons, and large rings, such as they wear on their fingers, to which they hang again a parcel of small ones, which look brilliant, and make a jingling noise when they move. A maiden-bride has her hair plated, and hung as full as possible with such kind of trinkets, as also her clothes. For this purpose, they get all the ornaments together that they can, the more the better; and with these belts, buckles, buttons, plates, rings, &c. she makes a grotesque figure, not much to the advantage of her person.

Habitations.—In some trading cities, especially at Bergen and Christiana, they build stone-houses; but their houses in general are built of fir and pine trees, the whole trunks of which are used in building, being laid one upon another, and only chopped even, to make them lie close; at the corners they are mortised, so that they never give way. These trunks are left round as they grow, both inside the house and outside, and are frequently boarded over and painted, which gives them a genteel appearance. In country villages they do not build their houses adjoining to each other, but in the manner of many towns in Switzerland and Holland, every house standing by itself, with their fields and grounds about them; and there are some farm-houses that look like small villages, but they are generally let to three, four, or five families, and frequently consist of six, eight, or ten separate apartments; and the *staveburet*, or magazine for all the provisions, is generally placed at a considerable distance from the dwelling-house, for fear of fire. It stands very high upon poles, to keep the provi-

sions dry, and preserve them from mice and other vermin. The kitchen, where they cook and brew, stands also separate, as do the barns, hay-lofts, cow-houses, stables, and the like. Each farm of this kind has generally a mill belonging to it, situated by some rivulet, besides a smith's forge; for every farmer is his own smith.

In Norway windows are seldom seen in peasants' houses. They receive light at the top, which is about the height of the room, where a square hole is made in the middle. In summer, and fine weather, they leave this hole open; but in winter, or wet weather, it is stopped up with a wooden frame, over which is strained the inward membrane of some animal, which is as strong and transparent as a bladder.

Commerce, Trade, &c.—Commerce with foreign nations has for many ages flourished in Norway. The exported produce of Norway is copper, both wrought and unwrought; iron, cast into cannon, stoves, and pots, or forged into bars; lead, though but in small quantities; masts, timber, deal boards, planks, marble, veeg-stones, mill-stones, and seyl-stones. Fish is also exported, as cod, herring, salmon, ling, flounders, and lobsters; also cow-hides, sea-calf-skins, goat-skins, some dressed into cordovan leather; various kinds of coarse and fine furs of bears, wolves, foxes, beavers, ermines, and martens; eider-down, and other feathers; butter, tallow, train-oil, tar, juniper, and several other sorts of berries and nuts; salt, alum, glass, vitriol, and pot-ashes.

This nation has a genius for trade and navigation, though their splendid manner of living, in some places, is an obstruction to it. Norwegian youths are sent to English, French, and Dutch merchants' counting houses, to improve themselves, and learn the language; and some young people are sent to those countries, a year or two, for a similar purpose.

Every inhabitant of Norway is an artist; and as he, therefore, does not want the assistance of any professed mechanic, such trades are not very general. Hence there are but two cities in the heart of the country, which are Kongsberg and Roraas; all the rest are situated upon the coast. All fine and curious works are imported from Holland and England; though the Norwegians begin to improve in such articles, and by degrees find the advantage of it, especially in joiners' and cabinet makers' work. Some farmers export their corn, but many more are obliged to buy more than half they use; and he is accounted a good farmer, who can grow enough to supply his own family: this in a great measure proceeds from the peasants chusing rather to work in the woods, or at the fisheries, than be employed in agriculture. In the mountains, the peasants make grazing almost their whole occupation,

occupation, and send their cattle to a great distance, to graze in fruitful spots along the rivulets that run between the hills.

Population.—Notwithstanding the great extent of this country, the number of the inhabitants is very inconsiderable, being computed not to exceed 750,000, the greatest part of whom reside in the southern provinces.

Religion.—Lutheranism is the established religion of this country, which is under the superintendence of the archbishop of Drontheim, and three suffragan bishops, viz. Christiana, Bergen, and Christiansand; the revenues of each of which have been estimated at £400 per annum, and that of the metropolitan at £600.

Literature and Language.—At Bergen is a good university, which is called Frederic College, and at the principal town of each diocese there is a public school. The principal language spoken is the Danish, with a considerable admixture of Swedish words and pronunciation, particularly in the eastern parts. But the gentry and principal inhabitants, we are informed by a modern traveller, speak the Danish as pure as the citizens of Copenhagen itself.

Government.—Though Norway is subject to Denmark, yet it is governed by its own laws, contained in a particular code, called the Norway Law, compiled by Griffelfield, under the authority of Christian V. the great legislator of his country. The governor, or viceroy, resides at Christiana, which is the seat of government, and of the supreme court, from whence, if any person imagines himself aggrieved, he may appeal to that at Copenhagen. The laws are administered by provincial courts and officers.

Revenue.—The annual amount of the revenue of Norway, received by the king of Denmark, is about a million of rix dollars.

History.—Of the Norwegian history the chief epochs may be considered in the following order:

1. The original population by the Fins and Laplanders.
2. The conquest by the Goths.

3. Norway was divided into twenty or more petty monarchies, till the 9th century, being in a more uncultivated state than Denmark and Sweden. From the history by Snorro, which is chiefly that of Norway, it would appear that the Norwegian monarchs sprung from the ancient royal family of Sweden. The sovereignty originally founded in the south-east part of Norway, around the modern city of Christiana, was extended by degrees; and Harald Harfagre, about A.D. 910, became master of all Norway. During the contest many discontented princes and nobles left the kingdom; and, among others, Ganga Hrolf, or Rollo the Walker, so called because no horse could support his weight, proceeded to France, where, in the year 912, the province afterwards styled Normandy was surrendered to him and his warlike followers. The successes of the Normans in England, Italy, and Greece, are interestingly delineated by Gibbon.

4. The reign of Olaf I. when Norway and Iceland were converted to Christianity.

5. The remarkable reign of Olaf II. the saint, from 1014 till 1030. His second son, Harald II. aspired to the throne of England, and was slain in a battle with Harold king of England, on the 25th of September, 1066.

6. In the year 1098, Magnus II. subdued the Orkneys and Hebrides, which had been subject to the Normans from about the year 850; but the earls had refused homage to the Norwegian kings.

7. The Hebrides, or Western Islands, were surrendered to Scotland, A.D. 1266, by Magnus V.; but the Orkneys continued to be regarded as subject to Norway till the year 1468. Iceland, which had existed as an independent republic, about this time became subject to Norway. Magnus V. first instituted hereditary dignities; and imprudently excluded the deputies of the people from the national assembly.

8. The final union of Norway with Denmark, in the year 1387; since which time the events of the former are intimately blended with those of the latter kingdom.

DENMARK PROPER.

General Observations on Denmark—Its Name—Situation and Extent—Divisions, Cities, Chief Towns—Public Edifices—Climate and Soil—Mountains—Rivers—Lakes—Forests—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants—Population—Commerce—Religion—Government and Laws—Revenue—History, &c.

IN our account of Denmark, a kingdom to which the attention of Europe has been drawn by late occurrences, we shall be enabled to introduce such matter as will shew the exact state of the country down to the latest periods to which documents have been procured. We are indeed peculiarly fortunate, by being in possession of all the works of travellers during the last ten years; and, with respect to Denmark, we particularly beg to call the attention of our readers to the interesting facts we shall procure from the modern investigations of Kuttner and Carr.

Name.—The origin of the name of this country is not ascertained with any degree of certainty: all that we know is, that the inhabitants were called by the name of *Danes* in the 6th century. Saxe Grammaticus says, the name of Denmark is derived from *Dan*, the first founder (according to him) of the Danish monarchy, and *mark*, a province or country; but this etymology is by many deemed entirely fabulous.

Situation and Extent.—Denmark Proper is situated between 54 and 58 degrees north latitude, and 8 and 11 deg. east longitude, comprehending a surface of 12,896 square miles.

Divisions.—It consists of the peninsula of Jutland, and several islands at the entrance of the Baltic: but though none of these is separately called by the name of Denmark, they retain in general that appellation. The divisions of Denmark Proper are, JUTLAND, North and South; the Duchy of HOLSTEIN; and the DANISH ISLANDS in the Baltic; in which order we shall consider them.

NORTH JUTLAND

Is bounded on the south by the duchy of Sleswick; on the north and west by the German Ocean; and towards the east by the Baltic, the Categat, and the Lesser Belt. It is divided into four dioceses; viz. AALBURG to the north, ARHUSEN to the east, WIBURG to the west, and RIPEN to the south.

AALBURG.

The diocese of Aalborg is about 70 miles long, and of very unequal breadth, comprehending 1456 square miles. The north part, which is cut off by a large gulf, is called *Wensusal*, and by Latin authors *Vandalia*, whence some apprehend it was the original seat of the Vandals. The country is fruitful, and considerably enriched by trade. It is divided into 13 bailiwicks, which contain 177 parishes, 100 castles, and the following cities and towns.

1. *Aalborg*, so called from the great quantity of eels taken in the gulf of Limford, stands on the south shore of it, about six miles from the Categat to the west. It is the see of a bishop.

2. *Schagen*, or *Skaun*, as the inhabitants call it, seated on the promontory or cape to which it gives name, is the most northern part of Jutland, betwixt the Norwegian Sea and the Categat, or Skagger Rack. This town is more frequented by merchants from all parts of Europe than any other in Jutland, because they touch here in their way to the Sound.

3. *Tysted* stands on the south-west part of this diocese, near 30 miles from Aalborg to the west, in the middle of the isthmus made by the German Ocean and the gulf of Limford, which is the most fruitful place of this district. This town is noted for a kind of university, which was at first only a free-school, founded by Christian III.

ARHUSEN.

The diocese of Arhusen is the eastern part of Jutland, and extends about 60 miles along the coast of the Baltic, but is not much above 30 miles in breadth in the widest part; it comprehends a surface of 1696 square miles.

Arhusen, the capital, stands at the mouth of the river Gude, which runs through it, and a little lower falls into the Categat. The situation is pleasant, being surrounded with forests full of game, pastures that are exceeding rich for the country, and fields which produce a considerable quantity of grain. The town itself is neat and agreeable, well furnished with provisions and domestic necessities from the neighbouring country, and with other commodities and luxuries by means of its foreign trade. The harbour is tolerable; and the cathedral church is erected after a curious style of architecture, beautified and embellished with various monuments of noblemen, prelates, &c.

WIBURG.

WIBURG.

The diocese of Wiburg, though an inland country, has the convenience of navigation : for here are large lakes that branch out into several parts of the island, and from whence, by means of the Limford, into which they run, and which communicates with the Baltic Sea, they receive vessels of great burden. The best horses in Denmark are bred in that part of the diocese named *Salling*. In this territory are comprehended 16 prefectorships, or bailiwicks, 218 parishes, and three garrisons ; the whole comprising a space of 1200 square miles.

The most considerable town is *Wiburg*, standing in the middle of North Jutland, of which it is the capital : it is a place of great resort, being the seat of a high court of judicature, which receives the appeals from inferior courts, but none can be made from it, except to the king.

RIPEN.

The diocese of Ripen contains 2416 square miles, 30 prefectorships, or bailiwicks, 282 parishes, 10 royal palaces, 100 noblemen's seats, and 7 cities, the principal of which are as follow :

1. *Ripen*, or *Rypen*, seated on the river Nipsaw, is a place of considerable trade. The neighbouring pastures and fields produce abundance of cattle and corn ; and hither are driven almost all the black cattle from many parts of Jutland, which are shipped off for foreign countries, especially Holland ; and their corn they export into the neighbouring countries. The city is often exposed to imminent danger from the tides flowing in with prodigious violence from the sea, so that the water sometimes comes into the church-yard of the cathedral, which stands on a hill ; and during the terrible inundation in 1734, the water even rose an ell high in the cathedral itself. This town is strong by nature only, without much assistance from art. Towards the west there is a castle, flanked with four bulwarks, after the old fashion, built in the year 1150. The citizens' houses are well built, and the inhabitants were formerly in better circumstances than they are now. They suffered very much during the wars with Sweden, the city being taken by the Swedes in 1645, but soon after recovered by the Danes. Before the Reformation this was a bishop's see, as it is now of a superintendent, or Lutheran bishop. The cathedral is a noble pile, built with free-stone, as well as its steeple, which is square, very high, and covered with lead. This church is adorned with several marble columns, and the tombs of some kings. There is another church, dedicated to St. Catharine ; two public schools for the education of youth ; and a college for divinity, in the court of the bishop's palace, where there is also a public library. The city is

governed by two burgomasters or consuls, and by a senate, who formerly administered justice with so much severity, that *the justice of Rypen* became a proverbial saying, to express a rigorous execution of the laws.

2. *Colding*, or *Kolding*, is about eleven miles distant from Hadersleben to the north : it was burnt down during the civil wars in 1247. In 1268, King Eric VI. redeemed it out of the hands of Eric, duke of Sleswick, and son to King Abel. He built a citadel there, to be a bulwark to Denmark, and fortified the town, especially toward the south. Christian III. on account of its agreeable situation, and wholesome air, built the castle of Arnsburg, above the city, removed thither with his court, and died there January the 1st, 1559. The hospital was built by Frederic II. whose son endowed it considerably. This town is but small ; but what makes it considerable is its bridge over the Aa, which is called *Boherrit*, and gives name to the whole country about it. All the black cattle and horses that come from Jutland, and go into Sleswick, must pass over this bridge, and pay each a crown for toll ; from which arises part of the king of Denmark's revenue.

3. *Frederick's Ode* was built by King Frederick III. of Denmark, and is well seated on a point of land, with an easy descent towards the sea : it has been well fortified, being a pass over the Lesser Belt, or Middlefort Sound. The works are very high on the land side ; and on the other side of the point there are eight bastions : it has four gates, and before each a ravelin, but ruinous. Towards the sea, the fortifications are lower, and of a greater extent, where there are bastions, platforms, and some batteries on the shore. This place was formerly a refuge for bankrupts and Jews ; but King Frederic IV. recalled those privileges. It has two churches, one Danish, and another German ; but they have no steeples. In 1658 this town was taken by Charles Gustavus's troops, commanded by Wrangel ; and the garrison, consisting of 2000 men, were all killed or taken. This opened a way for the king of Sweden to undertake his expedition over the ice from this place to Funen.

SLESWICK, OR SOUTH JUTLAND,

Is an ancient dependence on the kingdom of Denmark : for, in the year 1128, King Nicholas I. gave it to his nephew Canute, the son of Eric. Denmark was afterwards deprived of it ; but, in the year 1459, Christian I. reunited it to that kingdom. It is about 86 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and is watered by several streams, which render it exceedingly fruitful in most parts ; and in general it abounds in meadows and pastures. The eastern parts lie considerably higher than the

western; and in the latter there are large plains, which produce great plenty of all sorts of corn. The nobility here are rich; and the common people enjoy a great share of independence. This duchy is divided into four circles; viz. GOTTORP, TONDERON, FLENSBURG, and HADERSLEBEN. The principal cities and towns are the following:

1. *Sleswick*, the capital, is situated on a small arm of the sea, called the Sley. Christianity was established here in the ninth century, and the great church founded by Eric Barn, in conjunction with St. Anschor, bishop of Hamburg; and in the year 930, King Herold Blatand erected an episcopal see. Afterwards the Sclavonians invaded these parts in the year 1065, destroyed the church, and restored the Pagan superstitions; but soon after these foreigners were expelled, Christianity was restored, and the cathedral rebuilt. In the next century it became a place of great trade, and much frequented by merchants from Great Britain, France, Spain, Flanders, &c. The soil, especially towards the south and east, is not very fruitful; but the town is sufficiently supplied with all the necessaries of life from the neighbouring country, and the Sley affords abundance of fish. Sleswick was formerly the see of a Roman Catholic bishop, and is now that of a Protestant superintendent. Within a few miles from Sleswick, to the south, are yet to be seen in many places, the ruins of the famous wall and trench which was built, in ancient times, by the Danish kings, against the incursions of the Saxons.

2. *Gottorp* was the ancient seat and patrimony of the dukes of Holstein, the chief branch of which family, after the royal one, took from thence the title or surname of Gottorp. It is about six miles distant from Sleswick, to the south-west, on the river Sley, which nearly surrounds it, and carries vessels of small burden to and from the Baltic. This place is, at the same time, a fortress and a noble palace, being accounted one of the finest seats in all these northern parts. The castle stands to the west of the Sley, in the middle of a little lake, and is built in the form of an oblong square, fortified with four bastions of earth. It is commanded by a mountain that stands to the north-east, from whence the Danes annoyed the castle in 1675, when the duke was treacherously surprised by the king of Denmark at Rensburg. On the left side of the castle, there is a bason, or fish-pond, 200 paces square, with rows of trees on all sides, except to the north: there are also fine harbours on the sides of the pond; and, in the middle, a Hercules of a monstrous size, represented with his club, going to kill the Lernæan hydra. In every corner of the pond there are statues which form cascades. On the north there is a parterre, in the form of a crescent, divided into several compartments, with niches round, containing busts of many kings

and modern princes. There are also the representations of many fabulous animals, that throw water. At the end of the walk is a small room, in which is to be seen a globe, made by the famous Tycho Brahe, so contrived, that, by mechanism, it represents his system of the world.

3. *Frederickstadt*, so called from its founder, Frederick, duke of Holstein and Sleswick, who, in 1621, peopled it with Hollanders, and granted them great privileges. He endeavoured also to settle a silk trade here; and, for that purpose, sent an embassy to Muscovy and Persia, which gave occasion to Adam Olearius, secretary to it, to publish an excellent account of these countries. It is built after the Dutch fashion; and all religions are tolerated here. The town is square, and surrounded with a large canal, planted with a row of trees. It is divided into two parts by another canal, also with trees on the sides. The Lutheran church is a fine edifice, neatly built with brick.

4. *Tonningen* has a good trade, by means of its commodious harbour, formed by the Eyder. It was formerly well fortified; but the fortifications were demolished in 1714 by the Danes, who, after a long blockade, forced the town to surrender upon terms. After the possession of Hamburg by the French, subsequent to the renewal of the war in 1803, this place, owing to the excellence of its harbour, became, during the neutrality of Denmark, the chief port for the introduction of British and colonial produce to the continent. Here are several ranges of fine warehouses, and a great number of good houses have been erected; but the recent conduct of the court of Denmark, in joining the confederacy against England, has put a stop to the commerce of this place.

5. *Flensburg* (the capital of a district known by the same name, as well as by that of *Angelen*, or *Engeland*, the country of the Angles, who invaded South Britain, and bestowed upon it the appellation of England) is situated eight miles to the northward of Sleswick, on the gulf of Flens, formed by the Baltic; and the harbour is so commodious, that ships of great burden may come up, and be loaded from the warehouses.

DUCHY OF HOLSTEIN.

The Duchy of Holstein lies on the north-east side of the river Elbe, and is famous for its fine pastures. Great quantities of horned cattle are bought up in Jutland, and other provinces in Denmark, and brought here to be fattened: and their beef, besides what is used for the consumption of Hamburg and Lubeck, is salted or dried, and exported; the former to Holland, and the latter to all parts of Lower Germany; and, together with an excellent breed of horses, of which great numbers

bers are exported yearly, bring considerable sums of money into the province.

The duchy is divided into four principal parts, or provinces; viz. HOLSTEIN PROPER, WAGRIA, STORMAR, and DITMARSH.

This country is in general plain and level, and watered by the rivers Eyder, Sor, and Trave, with many rivulets, dykes, &c. A singular custom prevails here, which is, to drain the lakes and ponds at certain times, and sell the carp, lampreys, pike, perch, &c. which are found in them; and then, some years after, to sow them with oats, or use them for pasture; and after that to lay them under water, and breed fish in them again. The houses and churches are very neat: for the people here, with respect to nicety, resemble the Hollanders. The duchy contains about 30 cities and towns, great and small, and 600 parishes. The clergy are annually chosen, and removable at pleasure. The people are rigid Lutherans; so that they give but very little countenance to Calvinists, and are strongly prejudiced against the Roman Catholics. With regard to their character, they are in general so celebrated for their integrity, that the expression *Holsteinglaube*, or honest Holsteiner, is proverbial throughout Germany, Denmark, &c. The principal cities, towns, &c. in Holstein, are as follow:

1. *Lubeck*, an imperial city, and chief of the Hans Towns, is situated at the conflux of several rivers, the largest of which is the Trave. It is 12 miles from the Baltic, where it has a fine harbour, 40 miles north-east of Hamburg, and 117 south-west of Copenhagen. It is a bishopric, under the archbishop of Bremen, and was translated hither from Oldenburg in 1163. This city is a government or republic within itself, with royal jurisdiction, viz. to make and execute its own laws, as well in civil as in capital causes.

The name of this city is derived from *lobeck*, the German word for a point of land, which agrees with its situation. The principal trade is to Riga, Revel, Narva, and Petersburg; and the magazines and warehouses are, in time of peace, well stocked with the productions and commodities of England, France, Spain, Holland, the East and West Indies, &c. The fortifications are strong, well finished, and were formerly kept in good repair. The bastions are lofty and extensive, the out-works numerous, and the haven defended by several forts and ramparts. But in 1807, after the unfortunate battle of Jena, the Prussian general Blucher retreated hither, being closely followed by a French column of greatly superior force, which, after storming the place, committed the most horrid barbarities, and spread devastation and destruction throughout the whole city. The several market-places are large, and well supplied; and the

public buildings stately, particularly the senate-houses, arsenals, hospitals, &c. St. Mary's church is the most considerable in the place, being a lofty edifice, standing in the midst of the city, and having a double steeple, 217 yards high, built in 1304. The inside of it is profusely ornamented with pillars, monuments, &c.: but there are few of them which deserve much notice. The great altar is very richly executed in marble, by Quillon, who made so many at Antwerp; and near it is a famous clock, which is the most remarkable object at Lubeck, exhibiting the ecliptic, zodiac, equator, and tropics, and the planets in their several courses; which are so minutely done, that the station of any of them is to be found at every hour of the day. It shews the regular variations of the celestial bodies, sun rising and setting, the eclipses, festivals, and other remarkable days. Besides all this, there are several automaton; and, among others, a figure of our Saviour, with a door on its right hand, which opening at 12 o'clock at noon, out come, in order of procession, the emperor and the seven eldest electors, and, turning to the image, make a profound obeisance; this the figure returns by a wave of his hand; after which the whole group retires in the same order, through a door on the left, and both doors shut directly. In the tower is another piece of machinery, the chimes of which play the hours with a pleasing melody, and minute exactness. Under them is a bell on which is struck the hour. This is performed by a figure of Time; while a lesser figure, representing Mortality, and standing at the other side of the bell, turns aside its head at every stroke. This work, for its preservation, is surrounded with a frame of wire. It appears by the inscription to have been erected in 1405. Among others, is a very curious piece, called Death's Dance, which represents human beings in all stations of life, from an emperor to the meanest person, and from an old man to an infant, led round a circle by so many skeletons, shewing that death spares neither age nor condition. The cathedral of Lubeck is a building of very great antiquity, being erected in 1170, by duke Henry the Lion.

This city is amply supplied with water by pipes from a reservoir. Its principal staple commodities are corn and beer, the latter of which is in high estimation, not only as a pleasant liquor, but as a medicine, when externally applied to bruises, wounds, &c. Here are several hospitals, which are well supported. There is one for ancient people of both sexes, which was once a castle, from whence the citizens drove out the Danish garrison. St. Ann's is for orphans, and other children of poor burghers, who are instructed in some handicraft business; and there is an apartment for the confinement of libertines and lunatics. There are two,

two hospitals for the reception of poor travellers, where they are allowed three days' refreshment, and then sent forward with a pass; but such as happen to be sick are provided with all necessaries till they recover or die. The richest foundation of this sort is St. George's Cloister, which is chiefly for the maintenance of such artificers as are grown old and past their labour. There is also St. Gertrude's Hospital, which is a pest-house. There are, moreover, several alms-houses, endowed by the merchants, for the maintenance of the widows of poor members, besides several little streets of houses for the widows of other poor citizens.

2. *Travemund*, dependent on Lubeck, from whence it is but 9 miles to the north-east, and 32 west of Wismer, is a little town near the mouth of the river Trave. One of the counts of Holstein sold it, in 1320, for 4000 marks, to the Lubeckers, who fortified it, and commonly keep a garrison here of 3 or 4000 men, commanded by a burgher of Lubeck, who receives his orders from the burgomasters, and admits no person into the place without a passport. It was seized by the Czar in 1617, in order to secure transports for his troops; but he was persuaded to quit it. There is a peninsula over-against it, about a quarter of a league in circumference, which belongs to the duchy of Mecklenburgh. The river Trave rises out of a great lake, in the jurisdiction of Segeberg; and, after a serpentine course, from north to south, by Segeberg and Oldeslo, turns short to the east, waters the city of Lubeck, of which this town is the port, and then falls into the Baltic.

3. *Gluckstadt* is situated on the north side of the Elbe, 26 miles south-west of Hamburg. It is a neat well built town, and so strong as to be deemed impregnable. The Danes used to have 2000 men in garrison here, and some ships of war in the harbour, which is very safe and spacious. Here the Calvinists have a church, the Roman Catholics a chapel, and the Jews a synagogue. The town was founded in 1620, when Christian IV. king of Denmark, ordered it to be called *Gluckstadt*, which implies *fortunate town*. There being no springs about the town, the inhabitants use rain-water, or that of the river. Those who are convicted of theft receive sentence to draw, during life, the dust-carts belonging to the town, to which they are chained like slaves. All these towns, notwithstanding their long acknowledged neutrality, are now in the possession of French troops; but France has not yet deprived Denmark of her nominal sovereignty over them.

4. *Altona*, a large and populous village, is joined by a row of houses on the Elbe to Hamburg. It was formerly a refuge not only for insolvent debtors, but even malefactors, that came from Hamburg; because, though the inhabitants, a few fishermen

and sailors, subject to the king of Denmark, depended entirely on the trade and business of that city, yet it was quite out of his jurisdiction. The buildings at Altona are better in appearance than those of Hamburg; the streets are straight and regularly built, wide, and well paved. There is a town-house erected; and several other public buildings shew that the place is in a flourishing and improving state. The merchants' houses are on the water-side, so that ships unload and load at their doors. The king of Denmark made it the staple of the Danish East India company, which has been of very great importance to the town.

At Altona toleration is allowed, which is denied at Hamburg, to all Christian sects, of whom there is said to be a greater variety at Altona than in any city in Europe, except Amsterdam. The Calvinists of Holland and France have handsome churches, built all together on two sides of the same court. The Papists, though tolerated, are not so publicly countenanced as the Protestants. Altona has undergone many vicissitudes during the present war.

5. *Kiel* is a town of great trade at the mouth of the river Swentin, on a bay of the Baltic, and the capital of all Holstein; it stands between hills on an arm of the sea, where it forms a lake. It has a good harbour, well frequented by ships from Germany, Sweden, &c. and is populous and wealthy. The town and harbour are defended by a castle on a neighbouring hill. On the right or east side of the castle, the sea washes its walls; and on the other side of the bay there is a delightful country, though woody. On the left there is a small arm of the sea, and another beautiful tract of country adjoining to it. There is a garden facing this castle, about 200 paces broad, which is the only place whereby Kiel has communication with the main land; excepting that to the left of the castle there is a row of houses leading to a village called Brunswick. An university was established here by the duke in 1665, which has had many learned professors. It is divided into the New and Old Towns; of which the former is the largest and most pleasant, the streets being planted with rows of trees. The Old Town, which is a sort of peninsula, is fortified by deep ditches; and there are fine walks of trees on the harbour. There is a palace facing the town on the north side; but it is in very bad repair. Here are several considerable buildings, particularly a large church, and an hospital, which, before the Reformation, was a Franciscan monastery.

The trade of this town is not so considerable as it was in the time of Duke Frederick, who sent an embassy to Persia in 1633, to settle a commerce with that country. But it is much enriched by its yearly

yearly fair, which is kept for three weeks after Twelfth Day, and frequented by multitudes of all ranks, especially by the nobility and gentry of the duchies of Sleswick and Holstein, who meet every evening at a house where there is a variety of gaming; and very often parties are made for supper, which is generally followed with a ball.

From Kiel to Jutland you meet with a continual succession of plains and moderate hills, and a country which, though not equal to the finest tracts of Germany, is, however, very well cultivated, where the charming verdure of the corn-fields, meadows, and pastures, is shaded by the darker tints of the woods and groves. It is only here and there that small tracts of barren heath, turf, or moor-land, intervene.

6. *Itzehoe* is a small town on the river Stor, from whence that river is navigable to the Elbe. The country from hence to Hamburg is remarkably pleasant, and exceedingly fertile. The town is divided into the Old and New, the latter of which is extremely well built. It has a Lutheran nunnery for ladies of quality; but they do not make vows, or lie under those restrictions which are customary in Roman Catholic convents. It consists of an abbess and nineteen other ladies, and has the advowson of several churches.

DANISH ISLANDS.

The principal insulated parts of the Danish dominions deserve a full description; as, collectively considered, they are the seat of government, contain the metropolis of the realm, and the general archives of the nation. Besides, they are so blended with, and contiguous to, the other main parts of the nation, that it would be impossible to describe Denmark as a kingdom, without taking them into particular consideration.

ZEALAND.

Zealand is the most extensive and fertile island of the Baltic, and the principal part of the kingdom of Denmark. It is bounded on the east by the Sound, which divides it from Schonen; and on the west by the Greater Belt, which separates it from Funen: the islands of Mona, Falster, and Laaland, lie on the south; and on the north are the Categat and Skager Rack. It is nearly of a round form, being 60 miles in diameter, and about 200 in circumference. The land in general is low and very fertile; and its woods, forests, &c. abound with game. The coast is indented with many gulfs, bays, creeks, &c. which afford many secure harbours. The sea-vapours render the air thick, but not unwholesome, as the people here, in general, live to a very old age; but they are dull, dispirited, and inactive. Zealand is divided into

26 bailiwicks, called *herriks*; and these contain 346 parishes, with several considerable cities, towns, &c. The principal are the following:

1. *Copenhagen*, the capital, takes its name from the commodiousness of its port; as the word itself signifies the "merchant's port," or haven. It is situated on the eastern shore of Zealand, upon a fine bay of the Baltic, near the strait called the Sound, in 55 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and 12 degrees 56 minutes east longitude.

"Copenhagen," says Mr. Coxe, "is the best built city in the north. It is surrounded on the land with regular ramparts and bastions, a broad ditch full of water, and a few outworks. Its circumference measures between four and five English miles. The streets are well paved, with a footway on each side, but too narrow and inconvenient for general use. The greatest part of the buildings are of brick, and a few of free-stone, brought from Germany. The houses of the nobility are, in general, splendid, and constructed in the Italian style of architecture. The Gother Street, which runs in a straight line across the whole city, and divides the Old from the New Town, is above 4200 feet long, the breadth of the King's Market, and the area about the new harbour, included. This city contains four royal castles, ten parishes and nine other churches, a considerable number of public and private palaces; above 4000 burghers' houses, several of which are inhabited by ten or more families; eleven markets and public places, areas, or squares, 186 streets, and 100,000 inhabitants. The metropolis is divided into three principal parts; viz. Old Copenhagen, New Copenhagen, and Christianhafen. The two last are more modern than the first, and are laid out in broad streets, running in a straight line. In the night, the city is illuminated with lanterns; and the streets are kept clean, at the yearly expence of 10 or 12,000 rix-dollars."

Mr. Carr (now Sir John), who visited this city in 1804, says, "the streets are broad and handsome; the houses, of which there are about 4000, exclusive of the quarter belonging to the sailors, and garrisons for three regiments, are generally of brick stuccoed to resemble stone, and some are of free-stone, and in an elegant style of Italian architecture: the shops are in the basement story, and, by making no prominent appearance, do not disfigure the beauty of the rest of the building. The streets are divided by canals, which afford great facility to the transport of goods, but have narrow and inconvenient foot-paths: the population is estimated at 82,000. The *Kongens nye Tow*, or King's Place, which is also the market-place, is a noble, spacious, irregular area, adorned with many fine houses, several of which have been raised since the late fire. The only theatre in the city is here. This building is detached, small, but handsome

without, and within is elegantly decorated: in the season, the performers play four times in the week, alternately opera and play, which is generally in the language of the country. On account of the vast number of persons who have free admission to it; amongst whom are all sea and land officers, the receipts are but very little; and the deficiency, which is supplied by the king, generally amounts to about 100,000 rix-dollars per annum. Upon the whole the court is not a very munificent patron of the drama, and the performers seldom exceed mediocrity. One of the largest buildings in this place is the castle of Charlottenburg, part of which is devoted to the royal academy of painting, architecture, and sculpture; it has eight professors, and four masters: the day for the annual distribution of the prizes is the 31st of March, the birthday of his present majesty, who is the patron. Those pupils who obtain the golden medal are sent to travel at the expence of the crown.

"The most striking objects are the harbour and naval arsenal. The former is capacious enough to hold 500 men of war, and yet only one ship can enter at a time, which entrance is defended by several batteries. There are no tides in the Baltic; but the depth of water in the harbour, renders it perfectly secure for the greatest ships; so that it is justly reckoned one of the best harbours in the world. The king's fleet (for this is the principal sea-port in the kingdom) lies regularly arranged between booms, and over against them magazines, with the name of each ship on the door of the store-room belonging to it; and every thing is kept in the completest order. The admiralty is on the bank of the haven, and the arsenal is well furnished with cannon and stores. Adjoining to these buildings is a citadel, which commands the harbour*."

Mr. Wraxall, another English traveller, whose object it was to visit the three northern capitals and courts of Copenhagen, Stockholm, and Petersburg, and to describe the prominent features of each, says, "the Round Tower in Copenhagen is very singular. It was built by Christian IV. under whom the celebrated Tycho Brahe flourished, and designed for an observatory. There is not a single step in it, though very lofty. The ascent is by a spiral road, of near 14 feet broad, from the bottom to its summit. A professor who shewed me over it, assured me, that one of their kings drove in his carriage up and down it; and he even produced a book, as I doubted it, to prove the veracity of his assertion. I must own it may be done, though probably at some risk of the driver's neck.

"Every person of fashion here speaks French,

and many of them English. The gentlemen of the army and navy in particular are almost universally habituated to those languages: they were, at least several of them, with whom I fortunately fell into company, extremely disposed to treat a stranger with every mark of urbanity and politeness; and I had abundant reason to be grateful for their civilities."

Mr. Carr also bestows much praise on the inhabitants, for their urbanity and hospitality. No respectable stranger, he observes, can enter Copenhagen without speedily becoming the object of its frank and generous hospitality. "The day after our arrival," says he, "enabled us to partake of the hearty profusion of a Danish dinner; it was given at the country house of one of the most respectable inhabitants of the city, and appeared in the following succession; soups top and bottom, Norwegian beef boiled, ham strongly salted, fish, pigeons, fowls, stewed spinach, and asparagus. The meat is always cut into slices by the master of the house, and handed round by the servants. Etiquette proscribes the touching of any particular dish out of its regular course, although the table may be groaning under the weight of its covers; this ceremony is occasionally a little tantalizing. Creams, confectionary, and dried fruits followed: the wines were various and excellent. The repast lasted a formidable length of time: it was two hours of hard stuffing in a fog of hot meats. The appetite of the fair ones present was far, I might say, very far, from being puny or fastidious; but, in the homely phrase, what they ate did them good."

Mr. Wraxall, speaking of the climate, says, "I apprehend the year is more properly divided here into the summer and the winter, than, as with us, into four seasons. A short summer succeeds to the long series of cold and darkness, which environs them from October till April; and, during this period, they often experience very great heats for a few days, or sometimes weeks. Certainly man is much affected by physical causes; and one is not surprised to find the elegant arts chiefly confined to luxurious and southern climates, and faintly raising their heads amid these snowy and inhospitable regions, where the inhabitants seem in some degree to partake of the asperities of their soil, and where royal munificence, however unbounded, can only raise a few sickly and straggling plants.

"So few persons visit this metropolis or kingdom from motives of curiosity, that they were surprised when I assured them I had no sort of business here, and was only employed in the search of knowledge." A short time, however, is adequate to the completion of every purpose of this kind at

* We have little occasion to remind our readers, that the fleet to which Sir John alludes was taken possession of by an English squadron in 1807, and the whole either destroyed or removed to the British ports in the Channel.

Copenhagen. There is no appearance of industry or business here; and though one of the finest ports in the world, this city can boast of little commerce. There needs, indeed, no stronger proof of the poverty of the kingdom, than the scarcity of specie. I saw no gold passing, and hardly any silver. They pay every thing in paper; and if a single dollar is lost at the card or the billiard table, it is paid in a bill.

There are several old palaces and mansions in Copenhagen; that most worthy of notice is the palace of Rosenborg. It was constructed by our celebrated Inigo Jones, and stands in the middle of a large garden. It is small, and at present very little occupied by the king, or royal family. There is an air of antiquity in all the apartments, tapestry, and furniture, which is not displeasing, and impresses with respect. The hangings, which are not ill executed, represent the various actions by sea and land, which diversified the ancient wars between the Swedes and Danes; who seem always to have had the same national rivalry and animosity which the French and English are distinguished for, and which it is probable they will ever in some degree retain. At one end of this grand apartment, are three silver lions, as large as life, which seem, by the ferocity and rudeness of their appearance, designed to characterize the age and nation in which they were cast.

Here are several small cabinets full of curious rarities, which the various sovereigns of Denmark have successively collected, and left to their posterity. Many of them are intrinsically valuable; others only preserved from some event or accident connected with them. Among the first is a saddle, on which Christian IV. made a kind of triumphal entry into Copenhagen. It is covered with pearls, diamonds, and other precious stones; and the spurs are of gold, enriched with jewels. The coat worn by the king, and a light helmet on the same occasion, are likewise covered with pearls. The value is immense. They preserve likewise, with great care, a handkerchief of that prince, dyed with his blood; from a wound he received by a ball, which deprived him of an eye. They shew, with exultation, a sword of Charles XII. of Sweden: it is such a sword as such a monarch may be supposed to have used, and would suit the meanest soldier; it, indeed, evinces his strength and vigorous frame of body, by its size and weight. The blade is at least four feet long, and both the hilt and guard are entirely composed of brass.

The promenade in the gardens of this palace constitutes one of the chief amusements of the city, as they are always open, and on festivals, or Sundays, are crowded with company. They are large, but not laid out with taste, or adorned with any production of art, one statue only excepted, of

Hercules vanquishing the Nemean Lion, which stands under a portico raised to defend it from the inclemencies of the weather. This is of Italian workmanship, and the artist has found means to display great anatomical skill and beauty in the muscles of the hero.

The churches, being mostly for Lutheran worship, contain no remarkable works of art.

The police of Copenhagen is exceedingly good, and one may walk through the whole city at midnight with the most perfect safety. No robberies, no assassinations, are heard of. They wear no cloaks; nor conceal any stilettoes under their habits; as in the southern kingdoms of Europe. Indeed, it is usually almost as quiet here at 11 o'clock at night as in a country village, and scarce a coach rattles through the streets. Mr. Wraxall says, "this capital cannot be above the fourth part of the size of London, possibly not so much. It is fortified towards the land by a fosse, always full of water. The streets are commonly of a good breadth, and the houses are very neat and handsome. There is one very beautiful place here; which approaches nearer to a circus than a square; each side or division of which is only one palace, and in the centre is an equestrian statue, in bronze, of the late King Frederick V."

I did not see above three or four very handsome, or very elegant women in Copenhagen. Perhaps I may be too premature in my determination; but I do not think them, in general, to be compared, for loveliness, with our own women. I have heard this court likewise decry'd as very profligate, and very dissipated. It may be so; for any thing I can say to the contrary; but there are no symptoms of it visible."

The collection in the royal cabinet, or museum, is very large, and extends through all the vegetable and mineral worlds, as well as the fine arts. Mr. Wraxall makes the following just remarks on it: "It is more indebted," says he, "to Frederick IV. than to any other sovereign. Every nation has produced her heroes and her patriots, on whom history delights to dwell. Some countries are, however, more fruitful in great and sublime spirits than others. In Denmark, they have had very few to grace their annals. Sweden can boast her two Gustavusses; the first and second; nor are her Christiana, or her Charles, unknown to fame. In what country is not the name of Peter celebrated, the greatest legislator that modern times have seen? But here the sun of genius has never yet blazed from a throne, and shed a temporary lustre on the surrounding darkness. There are, however, two monarchs of Danish story, whose memories are revered, and whose golden days are frequently recalled with a sigh. The first of these was Christian IV. who was the opponent and competitor of

Gustavus.

Gustavus Adolphus, though with far inferior fame. The last was Frederick IV. This prince loved the arts; and, attached from that principle to the land where they seemed to hover and reside, he made two visits to Italy. As Christian the Fourth is usually depicted on canvas or tapestry, clad in armour, and holding a javelin in his hand; so this latter sovereign appears the patron of science, and the friend of the elegant and softer occupations. During the carnival at Venice, he resided in that city; and in one evening is said to have won, at the card-table, a bank worth 200,000 zechins, or nearly 100,000 pounds sterling, which he immediately presented to a noble Venetian lady, in whose house this happened, and whose whole fortunes were involved in this prodigious game of chance. This was an act of munificence, or rather of justice, worthy of a sovereign.

"They now keep among the greatest and most valuable curiosities, the chair in which Tycho Brahe was used to sit, when he made his astronomical observations at Uranibourg. The wood which composes it is held in reverence, and preserved with the utmost care, as having belonged to so great a man. Yet the astronomer himself was driven from his native country by faction and malevolence, and died at Prague, in the court, and under the protection, of the emperor Rodolphus, who sheltered this illustrious fugitive, and afforded him an asylum. Thus it generally happens that living merit is neglected or persecuted; while posterity, more just, consecrates its memory to fame.

"The collection of paintings in the royal museum is very large; and though it consists chiefly of Flemish and German pieces, yet there are some few beautiful originals of Guido, Titian, Angelo, and even of Raphael's hand. Our own Charles I. by Vandyke, and his sons, by Kneller, hold a distinguished place. They were, by the mother's side, of Danish extraction. Their own painters or sculptors scarcely appear in this numerous assemblage. There are, however, some paintings, chiefly historical, by Charles Dremander, a Dane, not ill executed. Among these is one of the famous Margaret de Waldemar, who united, in her person, the three kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, receiving the homage of this latter from its sovereign."

The walls of the royal palace bear ample and afflicting testimony to the colossal size and magnificence which must have formerly distinguished it, before it fell a victim to the flames in the year 1794. "Upon our visiting this splendid pile," says Carr, "we found by an inscription remaining undefaced, that it was raised by Christian VI. out of his own private purse, without pinching his subjects, and cost six millions of dollars. It stands in an island,

formed by a canal, and has several gates; the principal entrance is of wrought iron, and has a noble effect: the front has 25 enormous windows in a line, and is composed of six stories, three of which are upon a large, and the remaining three upon a small scale. This front is 367 feet long; the lateral sides 389; and the elevation 114: all the grand apartments of state were upon the fourth story; the court is surrounded with two wings of piazza 12 feet deep; and on each side are stables for saddle and carriage-horses which are arched; these have escaped the fury of the element. Here all the branches of the royal family were formerly lodged: so rapid was the fury of the conflagration, and such the panic which it inspired, that but little of the treasure of its pictures, furniture, and gorgeous decorations, could be saved. Of the internal magnificence of this palace some idea may be formed by the following description of the *Ritta Seal*, or Knight's Saloon: it was 118 feet long by 58; was lighted by day by nine windows, and at night by three lustres, which contained more than 1200 wax lights; on each side was a gallery, richly gilded, and supported by 44 columns of cinnamon wood, the bases and capitals of which were also richly gilded; an artist, of the name of Abilgaald, was commissioned to embellish the hall with 23 large paintings, from subjects arising from the Danish history, at 1000 rix-dollars a-piece. The library of the king, which suffered much by the fire, contained 130,000 volumes, and 3000 manuscripts. Its size is too enormous for that of the capital and kingdom; and forms a striking contrast to the present residence of the royal family."

"The royal library," says Kuttner, "is, in various respects, one of the most considerable in Europe. It is said to be particularly rich in Greek and Roman classics, and natural history. It likewise contains a great number of first editions, that is, of books printed in the 14th century. Among these I saw a work, which I never remember to have met with elsewhere, entitled, "*Salemonis ecclesie Constantiniensis epiglosse ex illustrissimis collecta auctoribus, &c.*" without date, or the name of the place where it was printed. In this Latin work I observed a great number of old German words. I likewise saw an exposition of the Gospel in the Danish language, printed in the year 1515, at Paris; and the same work, printed in 1518, at Leipzig. These two editions prove the little encouragement which printing, at first, experienced in this country. The first book printed in Denmark is of the 15th century, and, I believe, of the year 1496. The printer was a German, who came hither from Westphalia. If they had continued to exercise this art in Denmark, there would have been no necessity, twenty years afterwards, to employ the printers of Paris and Leipzig to print a popular work

work, like the above-mentioned exposition. The art has, however, since made great progress in this island, the presses of which have produced works that would do honour to any country. To these belong in particular, those very splendid works, the "*Flora Danica*," and the "*Rura Otii*," relating to the mushroom and vegetables of that species. The four Evangelists, in Greek, printed at Copenhagen a few years since, in folio and quarto, is likewise a very fine publication.

"This library contains a great number of manuscripts. One of Virgil, on parchment, is particularly beautiful. I saw here missals, which, in beauty and splendour, are equal to any I ever met with in England, France, or Italy. The finest, both for the hand-writing and embellishments, is a French chronicle; in which the pictures are so highly finished, and so exquisitely beautiful in their way, that the first artist of the present day would survey them with pleasure. I was also shewn a Tranquebar bible, which is used by the missionaries at that settlement; but it contains only the Old Testament.

"Professor Nyerup estimates the number of volumes at 250,000. The whole collection was in the greatest confusion, as it had recently received an accession of 100,000 volumes, by the acquisition of the Suhmian Library. If these numbers appear too high, I have stated my authority. This library is situated not far from the great palace, in a building which is worthy of it. It has a yearly revenue of 3000 Danish dollars; which sum is applied to the purchase of new publications. They seem very anxious to procure new works as soon as possible; for I found many splendid publications, which had appeared in England within the preceding twelve months."

The other principal buildings of Copenhagen are the king's mews, or stables, the orphan-house, the hospital, the military school, and the university; all or most of which received great injury from the bombardment of the English in 1807 when 3 or 400 houses were destroyed. "With respect to the university," says the traveler just quoted, "it must be observed, that, prior to the reign of Christian I. (who was one of the best kings that ever ruled the Danes, and, indeed, may be deemed the Alfred of Denmark), the Danish nobility and gentry, for want of proper seminaries of learning in their own country, were under the necessity of sending their children to the French and German universities and colleges for education. To remedy this great inconvenience, Christian applied to, and obtained leave of the pope, to establish a public seminary of learning in his own dominions, when the university of Copenhagen was

accordingly founded in the year 1475; but neither the successors of this wise and patriotic monarch, or even the clergy, have seconded his laudable endeavours with a proper degree of spirit. There are several hundreds of students in the university of Copenhagen, who were entered upon establishments which were made by former kings, when all the necessaries of life were very cheap, and when their young men could live decently upon what were allowed them; but now, as all these necessaries are become much dearer, and as few of these students have any private fortune, many of them are in the greatest misery. I have met with several young men of lively parts, in the university, who might make a considerable figure in the world; but since the new titular nobility bear the sway here, ignorance and assurance, as coming the nearest to their own character, are rewarded; whilst real merit, modesty, and decency, are treated with the greatest contempt. Some time since, the king had a French comedy established at Copenhagen, to the sight of which every decent person is admitted *gratis*; but I was astonished to see three or four young men of genius refused admittance to this comedy, because they were students in the university, though they were very decently dressed, and even solicited to be admitted into the galleries, while those places were filled with valets de chambre, and others of that class. No kind of people are held in more contempt, in this country, than the students of the university. What encouragement, then, have men of genius to study and cultivate the sciences?"

2. *Elsineur*, or *Helsingoer*, situated about 20 miles north of Copenhagen, on a neck or strait of the sea, called the Sound, is surrounded by walls. "This fortress," says Mr. Wraxall, "stands at the narrowest part of the Sound, and was probably intended to command its entrance; but it appears doubtful if it would answer this purpose against a resolute enemy. It is a noble pile, built early in the last century by Christian IV. and was then often honoured with the royal residence. It is of a square form, and within is a fine quadrangle. The turrets at the corners are very superb, and in the most improved style of Gothic architecture. I was shewn several large apartments, which are still denominated the king's: there is nothing, however, in them royal, except some gilt leather chairs, of equal antiquity with the castle, and several daubings of kings mounted on white steeds. I desired to see the chambers which were occupied by her majesty, Queen Matilda, during her confinement here; but they are those in which the colonel-commandant resides, who, it seems, had humanity and politeness enough.

enough to resign his during her stay, as the royal apartments were not fit to be inhabited at the inclement season of the year when she was committed here; nor do they appear capable of being made comfortable at any season."

No British traveller ever arrived at Elsinour since the above fatal transaction without feeling a peculiar emotion, and endeavouring to ascertain some particulars of the captivity of this unfortunate princess. They have always been enveloped in some degree of mystery; but we are indebted to Mr. Carr for exerting himself to collect them; and, convinced that our readers will take unusual interest in their perusal, we shall present them in that traveller's words, in our historical summary of this country.

The town of Elsinour is well built, and has an excellent trade, being more frequented than any other port in Denmark. Its inhabitants are about 5000 in number. Here all vessels, passing to and from the Baltic, pay a toll, and lower their topsails.

3. *Roschild*, or *Roskild*, lies at the bottom of the bay of Ifsefiord, and is 18 miles distant from Copenhagen to the west. It was formerly the capital of Denmark, when the king resided there; but since they have chosen Copenhagen for their residence, it has dwindled greatly in point of importance, and is much decayed with respect to wealth and commerce. Of 27 churches which formerly embellished this town, only two are now standing. It continues, however, to be the burial-place of the royal family; and here are the monuments of the Danish sovereigns, who, though born in different centuries, are all now collected together, and placed in the same gloomy chambers amidst silence and darkness.

"I enquired," says Mr. Wraxall, "for the celebrated Margaret de Waldemar, to whom history has given the epithet of the Semiramis of the North, and who united, under her reign, all the kingdoms beneath the polar sky. The person who accompanied us over the vaults, assured me her body was interred here, and, by the light of his candle, enabled me just to perceive an iron door, all access to which was blocked up by intervening coffins of monarchs, her successors. 'Within that door,' said he, 'is another vault, where rests the queen you enquire for. You can see no more.' In such a situation, it was impossible not to be impressed with that sublime and awful melancholy, which scenes of this nature are peculiarly calculated to produce. The chilly and unwholesome dampness of the air; the mournful light produced by a solitary taper, intruding on these abodes of darkness; the numerous dead, arranged side by side, and marked with crowns to denote their departed grandeur;

all these must have a most forcible effect on the mind, and will tinge with a temporary solemnity the gayest temper.

"In one of the chapels are two of the most magnificent monuments in Europe: they were made in Italy, by order of Christian IV. and are erected to the memory of his father and grandfather, Frederic II. and Christian III. Round the tomb of Frederic II. all the events and warlike achievements which marked his reign are exquisitely designed in bass relief. I could not but remark, that Christian IV. who erected these monuments, and who is the idol of Danish story, has yet received no such honorary tribute from his posterity. The most deserving are often the least honoured in this respect; but the fame of desert is not built of such perishable materials as marble."

Besides those two last mentioned, there are four others brought here, of two later Danish sovereigns and their queens. They are executed by the celebrated Wiedewelt, a native of this country, who is now alive.

The palace of Fredericksbourg, not far from hence, is a very large chateau, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like all the ancient residences of princes, for defence. It was built by Christian IV. and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic styles. Some of the rooms are very splendid, though furnished in the antique taste. The Knights' Hall is of a great length. The tapestry represents the wars of Denmark; and the ceiling is one of the most minute and laboured performances of sculpture that can be conceived. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of silver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed on this island, and even besieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithstanding its triple moat, and formidable appearance.

Hirschholm is the most magnificent and spacious of any of the palaces. It was built by Christian IV. and was the favourite residence of the court, during the Queen Matilda's stay.

4. *Sora*, situated on the banks of a lake, about the centre of Zealand, was formerly the seat of a rich abbey, and has many pleasant fields and forests near it. To this place the academy of Fredericksbourg was removed, and the foundations of the university were augmented, by Christian IV. Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, was educated here, and retained such a veneration for the place, that when he invaded Zealand, he would not suffer his soldiers to enter the town. But the revenues of this seminary have been annexed to the crown of Denmark, and the whole is gone to decay. Absolom, archbishop of Lund,

den, once founded here an establishment for the maintenance of those who should write the history of Denmark; and to this foundation we owe the history written by the celebrated Saxo Grammaticus.

FUNEN.

This island is next to Zealand in the scale of importance amongst the several parts of the Danish kingdom. It is bounded by the Greater Belt on the east; by the Lesser Belt on the west; by the Baltic on the south; and by a little channel, which separates it from the island of Samsøe, on the north. It is about 40 miles from east to west, and 30 from north to south. The country is fertile and agreeable, being finely diversified with verdant hills, shady woods, pleasant groves, fruitful fields, rich pastures, &c. The soil is good, well cultivated, and affords much grain, not only for home consumption, but exportation. Great quantities of black cattle, horses, hogs, &c. are bred here. This island is an appendage to the eldest sons of the kings of Denmark, and is deemed one of the richest governments belonging to that sovereignty. It contains four garrisoned towns, and 264 villages; but the most considerable places, and the only ones, indeed, worthy of description, are the following:

1. *Odensee*, the capital of the island, stands about its centre, and is a capacious, well built, pleasant town. Here the kings once resided, and the assembly of the states met, before the crown became hereditary, and the sovereign absolute. In the church, which is dedicated to St. Canute, the body of that prince was found a century and a half ago. It was deposited in a copper coffin, gilt, and adorned with precious stones. The most particular circumstance relative to this town at present is, that the inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, brew the best beer in the whole kingdom.

2. *Middlefahr*, on the western shore of the island, lies on the Lesser Belt, hence also called Middlefahr Sound. It is 17 miles distant from Assens to the north-west, and as many from Odensee towards the south-west. It is a small but neat town, in a country abounding with all the necessities of life. It is the common passage from this island to Colding in Jutland; the Belt not being broader here than the Thames is at Gravesend. On the 13th of January, 1658, Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, led his army over the ice to this place, routed the Danish forces that opposed him, and made himself master of the whole island of Funen.

FALSTERLAND.

This island lies to the north-east of Laaland,

from which it is separated by a narrow strait. It has Zealand on the north, and the island of Møn on the north-east. It is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. Its soil is very fruitful; and much corn is sent from hence to Mecklenburgh, and other parts of Germany. It is divided into two bailiwicks; and has several towns, of which the chief are,

1. *Nycoping*, on the western coast of the island, of which it is the capital. It is one of the most pleasant and well built towns in the whole kingdom, and styled by Dr. Heylin the Naples of Denmark. It has a strong castle, and a well frequented harbour.

2. *Stubcoping*, seated on the north coast, is a place of some trade, being the usual passage from Zealand into Germany.

ARROE.

The island of Arroë is situated near the coast of Funen, being eight miles in length, and two in breadth. It is extremely fruitful in corn, and abounds in aniseed, with which the inhabitants give a flavour to their bread, and season their meat. In this island are plenty of horses and black cattle; and some woods, in which are abundance of hares. The whole island has but three parishes; the chief town of which is *Kopin*, or *Kioping*, standing on the southernmost part of the island. It has a trade on account of its port, and is situated at the bottom of the bay.

LAALAND.

The island of Laaland is situated on the eastward of Langeland, and to the southward of Zealand, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called Grøne Sound. From its lowness, or flatness, it has the appellation of Laaland, or Lowland. It is 32 miles in length, and about 12 in breadth. The soil is very fertile; so that Copenhagen is supplied from hence with great quantities of corn, besides what the Dutch traders are furnished with for exportation. This island is divided into five districts, or bailiwicks, is the seat of a governor, and has several small islands subject to its jurisdiction. *Næscow*, or *Næskow*, the capital, is 59 miles south-west from Copenhagen, and has a commodious harbour for trade. The fishery is of some consequence, and the circumjacent country is rich in meadow and pasture lands.

MONA.

The island of Mona lies to the south-east of Zealand, and to the north-east of Falster. It is about 14 miles long, 5 broad, and full of high chalky hills. Here is some pasture ground, but very little corn land. It was formerly part of

of the Danish admiral's allowance, as being the first place for him to reside in. There are in this island several villages, large parishes, and a considerable city, called *Stege*, or *Stekoe*, which lies on the north of the island, on a little rivulet, that a mile lower falls into the strait called Grone Sound. This city made a brave defence against the Lubeckers in the year 1510, and forced them to retreat; and the valour of the inhabitants of the whole island was signalized in 1659, when they defended themselves better against the Swedes than the larger islands had done.

LANGELAND.

This island, which is 30 miles long, and 3 broad, is situated on the Greater Belt, to the southward of Fünen. It abounds with wheat, rye, and barley, of which the natives export great quantities. It is divided into 16 parishes; and *Ruteping*, on its western coast, is the most considerable town, being defended by the fort of Traneke, which is always furnished with a strong garrison.

FEMEREN.

This spot is near the coast of Holstein, from whence it is separated by a strait, which is not above two miles broad, and is called *Der Femmer Sundt*, i. e. the Straits of Femeren. The island is about 14 miles long, and 5 broad, and has always been looked upon as one of the keys of Denmark, with regard to the empire. It is extremely fruitful in corn and pastures. *Burg*, the chief town, is a neat place, having a considerable trade, and strong castle.

BORNHOLM.

Bornholm, anciently Boringia, is said to have been discovered by Thicloraus, the son of a prince of Jutland. It is the remotest and most easterly of all the islands belonging to the king of Denmark, being about 75 miles distant from Zealand to the east, and not above 15 from the nearest coast of Schöner to the south-east. It is about 20 miles long from north-west to south-east, and about 12 in breadth from south-west to north-east. Bornholm is a place of great importance for its situation and fruitfulness. The Swedes have frequently laid this island waste; and in the war with Frederic II. they made themselves masters of it; but they were obliged to restore it by the treaty of Copenhagen, concluded May 27th, 1660.

Many little islands surround the above mentioned more considerable ones; but they are either uninhabited, or of so little importance, as

not to be thought worthy of notice by travellers, or of mention by geographers. Some others are contiguous to them, and belong to the other provinces of Denmark, the most considerable of which are SAMSOE and LESSAW on the coast of Jutland.

Appertaining and contiguous to the duchy of Sleswick, are the islands of ROM, SYLT, and NORDSTRAND.

NORDSTRAND lies opposite to the bailiwick and town of Husum, and was, it is said, separated from the continent by a violent storm. When it became an island, it was about 12 miles long, and 4 broad, in some places, and in others less. Its soil is very fruitful, and produced abundance of corn before the inundations we shall describe. It had also very fat pastures, where they fed exceeding good cattle; and they used to send daily, to Husum, and other places, a prodigious number of sheep, fowls, ducks, and geese, and great quantities of butter. It contained 21 or 22 parishes, and about 8000 inhabitants; but it has suffered prodigiously, at several times, by fatal inundations. In the year 1320, the little city of Rungholt, with several churches and villages, were carried away by the waves, which drowned also great numbers of people, as well as cattle. In 1532 there arose such a violent storm, that almost the whole island was overflowed; when 1900 persons perished in the water. The next year another storm damaged the dykes very much. From 1612 to 1618, there happened every year such inundations as occasioned prodigious losses, and put the inhabitants to very great expence; and particularly in the year 1615, when 370 persons were drowned. They were afterwards free for some years, and had time to repair their banks and dykes; but all their care and precautions proved ineffectual against the storm that happened October the 11th, 1634. At ten o'clock at night the whole island lay under water; above 6000 persons were drowned, and, of all the inhabitants, there were hardly 1500 that saved their lives. The churches, which stood on the rising grounds, held out the storm indeed, but fell down afterwards, and 28 windmills were carried away by the waves. The loss of cattle of all sorts was reckoned to amount to 50,000 head; and the dykes were broken in 44 different places. The whole island continued thus overflowed, except a small spot of ground which stood higher than the rest. Since that time the inhabitants have laboured, with the assistance of some Dutchmen, to regain part of the land they have lost.

Climate, Soil, &c.—Although, in the outline presented to our readers of the component parts of Denmark Proper, we have given a short account of these subjects, relative to each division, yet we deem it necessary to make a few general observations. In the northern parts, the winter is very severe; and spring and autumn are seasons scarcely known, on account of the sudden transition from heat to cold, or the contrary. In winter, the entrance of the Baltic is commonly so obstructed with ice, as to render the navigation impracticable; and it is sometimes so frozen as to be crossed by sledges and loaded carriages. But the climate of Zealand and Holstein is more temperate.

The soil of the different parts of this kingdom is various, and in some districts has been greatly improved by cultivation. Towards the north it is composed, for the most part, of a sandy earth, which is tolerably fertile in grain and pasturage, being agreeably diversified with woods and lakes. The islands of Zealand, Funen, &c. and the southern provinces on the continent, have been compared, by Mr. Marshall, to the northern counties of England, being neatly laid out and in a high state of cultivation: but the greatest part of the lands are held as fiefs. The ancient nobility, by grants which they at different times acquired from the crown, gained such power over the peasants who resided upon their estates, that, at length, they reduced them to a state of extreme slavery, so that they were esteemed the property of their lords, and bought and sold with the lands. Their situation, however, has of late been rendered more agreeable by several royal edicts; but they are, if such an expression may be used, chained to their farms.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.—The rivers of Denmark are numerous, but unimportant, owing to the shortness of their courses. Only two seem to deserve notice: the Guden, which, in its winding course of 100 miles, receives the waters of upwards of 40 rivulets, and falls into the Categat; and the Eider, which is the ancient boundary between Jutland and the duchy of Holstein. A canal has been made at the expence of £800,000, to open a communication between the Baltic and this river, which falls into the German Ocean at Tonningen. This canal is upwards of 20 miles in length, and is navigable by vessels of 120 tons. It was completed in 1785.

The lakes of this country are numerous, though of small extent; but, in the northern part of Jutland, an extensive creek of the sea, called Lymfiord, penetrates from the Baltic, through an extent of 70 miles, to within two or three miles of the German Ocean. It is navigable in almost all directions; and, from the statements of recent

travellers, might be rendered of incalculable benefit to the kingdom, if a small canal was attempted between this and the German Sea.

Mountains and Forests.—Denmark, in general, may be considered a level country, though the interior of North Jutland contains some hills of a bleak and wild aspect, but the whole kingdom contains none entitled to the name of mountains. The whole is well wooded; and in the country last mentioned are several extensive forests, but the timber is reckoned inferior to that of Memel, Riga, and some other adjacent countries.

Animals.—We have had occasion, while delineating the different parts of this kingdom, to revert to the peculiar animals of each. Generally speaking, their cattle are lean, and (except the beef and veal) ill tasted. The sheep are small, by no means numerous, and seldom good flavoured. Swine are plentiful, and the bacon excellent. Hares are good; but rabbits, and several other animals common in England, are very rarely to be met with. Fowls, and most other kinds of poultry, are common and well tasted; but pheasants, wood-cocks, wild-ducks, &c. are scarcely known. Sea-fish is scarce, and not good; but that of the rivers is excellent, here being the best perch, carp, and cray-fish that are to be met with. The various insects of this country are in no material respects different from the circumjacent kingdoms.

Vegetables.—Denmark produces excellent corn, in such abundance as often to be enabled to export to the value of £100,000 annually, and also rape-seed, hops, and flax: the finer fruits do not come to perfection here; but the gentry, who pride themselves upon their gardens, have such as is tolerable.

Minerals.—The mineralogy of Denmark is far from being interesting. Some fullers-earth, alun, and vitriol, found in North Jutland, and porcelain-clay, obtained in the island of Bornholm, seem nearly to constitute the whole of this particular branch of knowledge.

Curiosities and Antiquities.—This country affords fewer natural curiosities than most others; there being nothing on this head worthy particular description; and the antiquities consist only of some rude remains of the temples and cemeteries of the ancient Celtic and Gothic inhabitants of the country. In several places circles of upright stones, disposed in a manner similar to those of Stonehenge, are to be met with. There are also on some rocks Runic inscriptions, which are so ancient, that they can no longer be explained with certainty; but they are supposed to record some remarkable events.

Manners, Customs, &c. of the Inhabitants.—The Danes in person are, in general, tall, strong, well limbed,

limbed, and tolerably featured: they mostly have red, yellow, and light hair. In the summer they dress in light apparel; and in winter, wear warm furs, or woollen clothing. They may be divided into five classes: viz. the nobility, who have privileged fiefs in the kingdom; the titular nobility; clergy, lawyers, and students; merchants and citizens; seamen, farmers, and labourers.

The superior classes have as much vivacity as any people in Europe, the French excepted. They are fond of magnificence, and live in a mean between the English and Germans; more sumptuously than the latter, but not with such a general consistency as the former. The French fashions are adopted; and the language of that nation is universal among them. In their houses they are expensive, not only in the architecture, but also in the furniture, exceeding, in this respect, the Germans, but not equalling the English. Some of the nobility keep French cooks, but the practice is not general. In their wines they are particularly curious, both as to quality and variety.

Of the second class, or titular nobility, many are foreigners, and in particular Germans, who generally come hither very poor; but by servilely attending the court, and falling into all the schemes of the favourite or minister, usually acquire wealth. Those who compose the third class, as they are dependent on, are obliged to be subservient to the court, and submissive to the minister and favourites. The people of the fourth class are conceited and haughty, but at the same time servile and timid.

The fifth class, the seamen, would be much more alert in their business, if they were better used; and act with greater spirit and courage, if they were not familiarized to fear, and trained from their birth to the most abject slavery. They, however, shewed much spirit on a late occasion, by refusing to become the mercenaries of France. The farmers are perfect vassals, and, by not being permitted to have any will of their own, become timid, careless, and indolent. If any of these happen to get a little money, they become perfect sots, and usually destroy themselves by intoxication; taking no delight in any thing but out-drinking their neighbours.

The warlike genius, for which the Danes were formerly celebrated, is now totally lost. They are suspicious, deceitful, dull, and, in general, stupid. An accurate writer says, "Their general character is a strange composition of pride and meanness, insolence and poverty. If any gentleman can find a purchaser for his estate, the king, by the Danish law, has a right to one-third of the purchase money; but the lands are so burdened with impositions, that there would be no danger of alienation, even if this restriction

was not in force. No person would offer money for an estate to be held upon such terms; and some gentlemen have actually offered to make a surrender to the king of large tracts of fertile land in the island of Zealand. Conscious that they enjoy their possessions, thus encumbered, at the nod of an arbitrary sovereign, they are at little or no pains to improve their estates; and they look upon trade as beneath their dignity. They therefore rack their tenants with the utmost oppression, in order to procure the immediate means of gratifying their vanity, gluttony, and extravagance. Those courtiers who derive money from their employments, instead of purchasing land in Denmark, remit their cash to the banks of Hamburg and Amsterdam. The merchants and burghers tread in the footsteps of their superiors, and spend all their gain in luxury and pleasure, with an impatient avidity, as if they were afraid of incurring the suspicion of affluence, and being stripped by taxation. The peasant, or boor, follows the same example; for no sooner has he earned a rix-dollar, than he makes haste to expend it in brandy, lest it should fall into the hands of his oppressive landlord. This lower class of people are as absolute slaves as the negroes in the West Indies, and subsist upon much harder fare. The value of estates is not computed by the number of acres, but by the stocks of boors, who, like the timber, are reckoned a parcel of the freehold."

In their diversions the Danes resemble the French and English. Cards make a greater progress than formerly; and the wives of the nobility, and of such other classes as can afford it, have at Copenhagen their assemblies almost as regularly as any, at London. The men are great chess-players, it being a game they are very fond of, and which is more commonly introduced at their visits than in England. Billiards and tennis are also common at Copenhagen. The theatre is French; though they have established a Danish one, where pieces, translated from the English and French, are indifferently performed. Attempts have been made for an Italian opera, but with little success.

In winter, as soon as the snow is firm enough to bear, the Danes take to their sledges for amusement, the king and court first giving the example; for so great a respect do they bear to majesty, that they never cross a new bridge till the king has first gone over it. The court then first make their appearance in their sledges, making several tours about the town in great pomp, with kettle-drums and trumpets; the horses which draw the sledges being richly adorned with trappings and harness, full of small bells, to give warning to such as stand in the way. After the court

court has been thus abroad, the burghers, and others, trot about the streets all night, in their fur gowns, each with his female in the sledge with him; and this they esteem a pleasant amusement.

They are much addicted to drinking; and the liquors most in use with the higher orders are Rhenish wine, cherry-brandy, and all sorts of French wines. The men are fond of them, and the women do not refuse them. The poor drink bad beer, and Danish brandy distilled from barley.

The chief distempers are apoplexies and the falling sickness, which are epidemical; and a person can scarcely pass through Copenhagen without seeing one or two poor creatures in a fit, in the streets, with a circle of gazers and assistants about them. It is usual here for them to die of a *slacht*, as they call it, which is an apoplexy proceeding from trouble of mind; but, on the other hand, few or none are afflicted with coughs, catarrhs, or consumptions, so common in England.

Sumptuous funerals and monuments are general among the nobility; and it is usual to keep the corpse of a person of quality in a vault, or the chancel of some church, for several years, till a fit opportunity offers to celebrate the funeral. The poorer sort are buried in great thick chests; and in the towns, there are about a dozen of common mourners belonging to each parish, whose business it is to carry and attend them to their graves.

Population.—The population of the whole of the Kingdom of Denmark, was found on an enumeration, in 1759, to amount to 2,244,000, including the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst in Westphalia. In 1769 another enumeration was made under the famous Struensee, by which it appears it then contained 2,017,027: since which period the two countries above mentioned have been added to the kingdom of Westphalia; and the population of the Danish dominions is thus given in Bötticher's Tables:—

Diocese of Zealand	345,740
—Funen	151,512
—Arhusen	125,282
—Ripen	83,186
—Aalborg	71,242
—Wiburg	53,488
The Duchy of Sleswick	251,230
—Holstein	311,758
Norway	700,000
The Faro Islands	5,000
Iceland	50,000
Total	2,148,438

Manufactures and Commerce.—The manufactures of Denmark are neither numerous nor important; the royal manufactures, as they are called, at Copenhagen, employ upwards of 400 looms, chiefly in fabricating coarse cloth for the army and navy. This country is extremely well situated for commerce; her harbours being well calculated for the reception of ships of all burdens, and her mariners very expert in navigation. The country also supplies a great variety of timber and other materials for ship-building; and some of the provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. The imports are salt, wine, brandy, and silk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. When the intercourse was open with England, the Danes imported from thence broad cloths, clocks, cabinet-work, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England; but the recent conduct of the Danish government, in joining the northern confederacy against England, has not only deprived them of their valuable East and West India possessions, but almost annihilated the whole commerce of the country.

They have, in a great measure, the command of the Baltic Sea, being possessed of the passage of the Sound, through which all ships pass and repass. This is guarded by the fortress of Cronberg; and a toll is paid to the crown of Denmark, by all ships that pass this way.

Travelling is well managed. There are post-carriages in every town, which a person may hire at a reasonable fixed rate. The roads are measured all over the kingdom, and at every quarter of a Danish mile, the ground is a little raised, and a stone erected on it.

Language and Learning.—The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but the Danes in general have made no great figure in literature; though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines; and the Round Tower and Christian's Haven display the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus. They begin now, however, to make some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama.

The Danish Paternoster is as follows:

Vor fador som er i himmelin; heiligt vorde dit nafn; tilkomme dit ryke; vorde din villie paa jorden som i himmelin; gif os i dag vort daglige brod; og forlad os vor skyld som vi forlade vore skyldener: og leed os icke i fristrelse, men frels os fra ont; thi reget er dit, og kraft og hergled i evighed. Amen.

The Danes are not proficient in the fine arts, not having encouragement enough to make any progress. The only science that is carried to any extent at Copenhagen, is music, where some very capital German and Italian performers meet with encouragement.

Religion.

Religion.—Lutheranism is the established religion of the country; but, in Copenhagen, the Calvinists have a church to themselves; the Papists frequent the chapels of foreign Roman Catholic ministers; and the Jews have a synagogue. There is no archbishop; but the bishoprics are six; the chief see is that of Zealand, which yields about £1000 a year. The rest are from £400 to £600. The other clerical orders are provosts, or archdeacons, parish priests, and chaplains. The parochial clergy are maintained by their glebes, tythes, and surplice fees; but in Jutland some of the livings do not exceed £20 a year. Reisbeck gives a singular picture of the Danish parochial clergy, who are as much venerated by the people as they were in Scotland a century ago, but are orators of despotism, being held in strict bonds by the court. The number of curates and vicars is 2,462.

Civil Constitution, Government, and Laws.—The ancient constitution of Denmark was originally much the same with that of other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the senate, where he presided, was invested with the executive power. He likewise commanded the army, and decided finally all the disputes which arose between his subjects. The legislative power, together with the right of election of the king, was vested in the states, who were composed, first, of the order of nobility, and secondly, of that of the citizens and farmers. After the Christian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were also admitted, not only to be an order of the states, but to have seats likewise in the senate. These orders had their respective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other. The crown had also its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue arising out of lands which were appropriated to its support. This constitution had many evident advantages; but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjusted; so that the nobles very soon assumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppressed the people, as the national assemblies were not regularly held to redress their grievances; and when the Roman Catholic clergy came to have a share in the civil government, they far surpassed the nobility in pride and ambition. The representatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to oppress and tyrannize over the people. Christian the Second, by endeavouring, in an imprudent manner, to stem the torrent of their oppression, lost his crown and his liberty; but Christian the Third, by uniting himself with

the nobles and the senate, destroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppression of the common people by the nobility still remained. At length, in the reign of Frederick the Third, the people, instead of exerting themselves to remedy the defects of the constitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were so infatuated as to make the king despotic, in hopes to render themselves less subject to the tyranny of the nobility. A series of unsuccessful wars had brought the nation in general into so wretched a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The dispute came to a short question, which was, that the nobles should submit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people upon this looked to the king for relief and protection from the oppressions of the intermediate order of nobility; and in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the states, it was proposed that the nobles should bear their share in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg reminded the people, that the commons were no more than *slaves* to the lords.

This was a watch-word which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itself. Nanson, the speaker of the commons, exclaimed at the term *slavery*; the assembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a house of their own, where they resolved to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services, and formally to establish in his family the hereditary succession to their crown. This resolution was executed the next day. The bishop of Copenhagen officiated as speaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promising them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were shut; and the nobility, thus surprised, were compelled reluctantly to submit.

On the 10th of January, 1661, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, signed each a separate act, by which they consented that the crown should be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and invested the king with absolute power, giving him the right to regulate the succession and the regency, in case of a minority. This renunciation of their right, subscribed by the first nobility, is still preserved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark divested the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve those poor people who had been the instruments of investing him with this additional power.

power. The king united in his person all the rights of sovereignty; but, as he could not exercise all by himself, he was obliged to entrust some part of the executive power to his subjects.

Since the revolution of 1660, however, the Danish government has been an absolute monarchy. That revolution was produced by the obstinacy of the nobility, and consequent enmity of the clergy and burgesses, who perceived no other means of humbling their adversaries. "But," says Pinkerton, "as the intentions of the clergy and burgesses were perfectly understood, and their original aim was to acquire a parity of power, it may be well regarded as extremely ungenerous in the monarchs, that they did not restore the national council, so constituted and balanced. It is indeed not a little remarkable, that, since that period, the genius of Denmark has ever yielded to that of Sweden, a proof that an absolute sovereign in fact weakens his own power; for liberty is the parent of industry and exertion, and a free people can supply strength and resources to the throne infinitely surpassing those of despotism."

The Danish government has been generally conducted with mildness and moderation; and their regal acts pass through many councils, who carefully observe the legal forms. The laws are chiefly comprised in the code of Christian V. who reigned in the end of the 17th century. The peasants, who had sunk into slavery, from the causes above mentioned, were all declared free in the year 1800.

The common methods of execution in Denmark are beheading and hanging; in some cases, as an aggravation of the punishment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the sentence is executed. For the most atrocious crimes, such as the murder of a father or mother, husband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel; but capital punishments are not common in Denmark. The other principal modes of punishment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the rasp-house, to houses of correction, to public labour, and imprisonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

Army and Navy.—The army of this kingdom is computed at 70,000 men, of which Denmark supplies about 40,000, and Norway the remainder. The navy consisted of 33 ships of the line, manned by about 11,000 seamen and 5000 marines.

Revenue.—The annual revenue of Denmark, at the beginning of the present century, was computed at about one million and a half sterling, being superior to that of Sweden. Denmark

contributed £543,554; Norway, £290,000; Sleswick and Holstein, £300,000; the West Indian islands, £262,000; the toll levied upon ships passing the Sound, £122,554; Altona, £3150. The expences of the state amounted annually to about £1,050,000; and it was burdened with a debt of £2,600,000.

Pinkerton very justly observes, that Denmark and Norway have long ceased to be objects of terror to the southern powers, and centuries have elapsed since any of the monarchs have been distinguished in war, while the Swedes, on the contrary, have maintained their martial spirit. Christian IV. whose reign extended from 1518 to 1648, was the last monarch who made a figure as a warrior; and since that period the Danes have been vanquished in every contest, either in Sweden or Germany. The resources of the monarchy have also been weakened by its despotism; and Denmark is little regarded among the European powers.

Royal Titles, Orders of Knighthood, &c.—In all public acts, the kings of Denmark are designated as King of Denmark and Norway, of the Goths and Vandals; Duke of Sleswick and Holstein; Stormar and Ditmarsh; and Count of Oldenburg and Delmanhorst. There are two orders of knighthood; that of the Elephant, and that of Danebrog. The former was instituted in 1478 by Christian I. and is reckoned the most honourable: the number of its knights, besides the sovereign, is 30, who are all addressed with the title of Excellency. The order of Danebrog is said to have been first instituted in 1219, and, after being long obsolete, was revived in 1671 by Christian V.: the number of knights is unlimited.

History.—The chief historical epochs of the territories subject to Denmark are as follow:—

1. The most ancient population of the continental part of Denmark by the Cimbri, who, it is thought, possessed the adjacent large isles, the ancient and chosen seat of the Danish monarchy.

2. The conquest by the Goths, who appear to have proceeded from Scandinavia into the isles, and Jutland; as the dialect differs greatly from the German Gothic, while it resembles the Swedish and Norwegian.

3. The Roman and Frankish accounts of Denmark, from the time of Pliny and Tacitus to that of Charlemagne.

4. The fabulous and traditional history of Denmark, which extends from about the year of Christ 500 to the reign of Heriold, mentioned by the Frankish historians in the time of Charlemagne.

5. The conquest of Denmark by Olaf II. king of

of Sweden, about the year 900. The Swedes appear to have been expelled by the Norwegians; for we afterwards find Hardegon, of Norway, king of Denmark.

6. The more regular history commences with Gurm, or Gormo, A. D. 920; but there seems no evidence whether he sprung from a native race, or from the Swedish, or Norwegian. Gormo was succeeded by his son Harald Blaaland in 945, who was followed by his son Swein in 985, well known by his invasion of England, and who died A. D. 1014.

7. The reign of Canute the Great, king of Denmark, England, and Norway. The conversion of Denmark to Christianity commenced in the beginning of the ninth century, when St. Amsgar began to diffuse the light of religion in Jutland; and towards the middle of that century there were churches at Sleswick, and even at Arhusen: but Christianity was far from being universal in Denmark till the reign of Canute, when it was followed by its universal consequences—the cessation of piracy and rapine, and the diffusion of industry and civilization. In the year 1086 Denmark afforded an example of a regal saint and martyr, in Canute IV.

8. The wars of Denmark with the Wends, or Slavonic inhabitants of the southern shores of the Baltic, who, by the ignorant historians of the middle ages, are styled Vandals, as the *Gutæ* of Ptolemy are by them styled Goths, whence the Swedish Gothland instead of Guthland.

9. The reign of Waldemar, surnamed the Great, A. D. 1157, who defeated the Wends in many battles, and subdued the isle of Rugen. Hence followed slowly the conversion of Pomerania, and of the countries on the east. Waldemar is regarded as the parent of the Danish laws. In 1223 the second Waldemar, with a fleet of 1000 ships, subdued a part of Livonia and Estonia; on which occasion is said to have been first displayed the noted banner of Danebrog, being red with a white cross.

10. The marriage of Hakon VI. king of Norway, with Margaret daughter of Waldemar III. king of Denmark, A. D. 1363, produced the memorable union of the three crowns of the north. On the death of her young son, Margaret ascended the throne of Denmark and Norway in 1382, and that of Sweden in 1389. She died in 1413; and Sweden soon after prepared to throw off the yoke. Her husband, Eric of Pomerania, reigned about 26 years after her death; and was followed by Christopher of Bavaria, who removed the royal residence from Roskild to Copenhagen, which was the origin of the elevation of the latter city.

11. The accession of the house of Oldenburgh, in the person of Christian I. A. D. 1448. The repeated revolts of Sweden were suppressed by his successor John, who was crowned at Stockholm in 1497, and the next year he concluded an alliance with Louis XII. of France, and James IV. of Scotland. John was engaged in repeated wars with the Hanseatic league, which supported the Swedes against his authority.

12. The tyrannical reign of Christian II. when Sweden was emancipated by the efforts of Gustavus Vasa.

13. The abolition of the Roman Catholic religion by Christian III. 1537; the Lutheran doctrine having been introduced in 1526.

14. The reign of Christian IV. who carried on several unsuccessful wars against Austria and Sweden; the latter were continued by his successor Frederic III. who was constrained to sign a treaty in March 1660, by which he abandoned to Sweden the valuable province of Sconen, and other parts in the south of Scandinavia, which had long remained in the possession of the Danes, together with the fertile island of Rugen.

15. The memorable revolution of the 23d October, 1660, by which the crown was declared absolute and hereditary.

16. The wars between Denmark and Charles XII. of Sweden, who twice laid siege to Copenhagen, of which he would probably have made himself master, if he had not been compelled to relinquish the siege by the appearance of an English squadron. After a series of successes and reverses on the part of Denmark, at length an end was put to those wars by the death of Charles, who was killed at the siege of Fredericshall in Norway. The Danish king, Frederic the Fourth, died two years afterwards, and was succeeded by his son Christian VI. who proved himself the greatest monarch that ever swayed the sceptre of this realm. He made the best use of his power by cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and promoting the happiness of his subjects, whom he relieved from many oppressive taxes.

His son and successor, Frederic V. married a daughter of George I. of England; he improved upon his father's plan for the happiness of his people, and took no part, except as a mediator, in the German wars. His son, Christian VII. mounted the throne in 1766, and married his present Britannic Majesty's sister, the princess Carolina Matilda. This alliance, though it bore at first a most promising appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. The important events to which we allude, took place at the Castle of Cronberg, at Elsinour, and are thus related by Carr:

"It is well known, what neglect and sufferings the queen, in the bloom of youth and beauty, endured, from the fatal imbecility of the king's mind, and the hatred and jealousy of Sophia Magdalen, the grandmother, and Juliana Maria, the step-mother, of his majesty; and that the anger of the latter was increased by Matilda's producing a prince, an event which annihilated the hopes that Juliana cherished of seeing the elevation of her favourite son, Prince Frederick, to the throne. The queen, about this period, 1769, was saved from ruin, only by attaching to her confidence the Count Struensee, who, sagacious, penetrating, bold, enterprising, and handsome, without the pretensions of birth, had ascended to an unlimited power over the will of the sovereign, had obtained the reins of government, and had far advanced, with almost unexampled celerity and unshaken firmness, in reforming the mighty abuses which encumbered and distorted the finance, the laws, the administration of justice, the police, the marine, the army, and the exchequer, and in short every department of government. Struensee restored the queen to the bosom of her sovereign, and with the assistance of Count Brandt, the friend of Struensee, envied the king, and made him inaccessible to every other person. His majesty's great delight at this period arose from the society of a negro boy, and a little girl about 10 years of age, who used to amuse him by breaking the windows of the palace, soiling and tearing the furniture, and throwing dung and turf at the statues in the garden. Struensee experienced the usual fate of reformers, the abhorrence of those whom he corrected, and the suspicions or indifference of the people whom he served. He dislodged a nest of hornets: Juliana, with the keen, unwearied vigilance of the tyger-cat watched her victims from the gloomy shades of Fredensborg; where herself and her party, consisting of Counts Ranzau, Köllar, and others, fixed on the 17th of January, 1772, to close the career of their hated rivals. Their savage resolve was facilitated by the last fatal and infatuated measures of Struensee, who beheld too late the frenzy of precipitate systems of reform: he prevailed upon the king to issue an edict, empowering every creditor to arrest his debtor without reference to birth or rank. The nobility flew to their estates in all directions, with revenge in their hearts; he terrified, and grievously offended, the mild and rigid citizens of Copenhagen, by assimilating its police to that of Paris, and by disbanding the royal foot-guards, composed of Norwegians, for the purpose of drafting them into other regiments. His days, his hours, were now numbered: on the night

of the 16th of January, a magnificent *bal paré* was given at the great palace, since burned. The young queen never looked more lovely. At three o'clock a dead silence reigned throughout the palace: the conspirators, with several guards, passed the bridge over the canal, and surrounded the avenues. Juliana, Prince Frederick, and Ranzau, went to the door of the king's apartment, which, at first, the fidelity of a page refused to unlock; they terrified the monarch by their representations of an impending plot, and thrust into his hands, for signature, the orders for seizing the queen, Struensee, and Brandt. Upon seeing the name of Matilda upon the order, love and reason for a moment took possession of the king's mind, and he threw the paper from him; but, upon being ardently pressed, he signed it, put his head upon his pillow, pulled the bed-clothes over him, and in a short time forgot what he had done. Köllar proceeded to Struensee's room, and being a powerful man, seized the latter by the throat, and with some assistance sent him and Brandt in a close carriage, strongly guarded, to the citadel. Ranzau and Colonel Eickstadt opened the door of the queen's chamber, and awoke her from profound sleep to unexpected horror. These savage intruders are said, upon her resisting, to have struck her: the indecency and indignity of the scene can scarcely be imagined. After the queen had hurried on her clothes, she was forced into a carriage, attended by a squadron of dragoons, and sent off to the fortress of Cronberg. Upon her arrival there, she was supported to her bed-chamber, a cold, damp, stone room: upon observing the bed, she exclaimed, 'Take me away! take me away! rest is not for the miserable, there is no rest for me.' After some violent convulsions of nature, tears came to her relief: 'Thank God,' said the wretched queen, 'for this blessing: my enemies cannot rob me of it.' Upon hearing the voice of her infant, the princess Louisa, who had been sent after her in another carriage, she pressed her to her bosom, kissed her with the most impassioned affection, and bathed her with tears. 'Ah! art thou here,' said she, 'poor, unfortunate innocent? This is indeed some balm to thy wretched mother.' In the capital a scene of terror, tumult, and forced festivity followed: at twelve o'clock the next day, Juliana and her son paraded the king in his state coach, arrayed in his regalia, through the principal streets; but only here and there a solitary shout of joy was heard. For three days the imprisoned queen refused to take any food. It is said the king never once enquired for her, and now became the sole property of the infamous Juliana, who guarded her treasure

treasure with the eye of a basilisk. The court of Great Britain made a mild, but firm communication upon the subject of the personal safety of the queen: nine commissioners were appointed to examine the prisoners: the principal charges against Struensee were a design against the king's life, and criminal connection with the queen.

"Four commissioners proceeded to examine the queen. Her answers were pointed, luminous, and dignified: she denied most solemnly any criminal intercourse with Struensee. S——, a counsellor of state, abruptly informed the queen, that Struensee had already signed a confession in the highest degree disgraceful to the honour and dignity of her majesty. 'Impossible!' exclaimed the astonished queen; 'Struensee never could make such a confession: and if he did, I here call heaven to witness, that what he said was false.' The artful S—— played off a master-piece of subtlety, which would have done honour to a demon: 'Well then,' said he, 'as your majesty has protested against the truth of his confession, he deserves to die for having so traitorously defiled the sacred character of the queen of Denmark.' This remark struck the wretched princess senseless in her chair: after a terrible conflict between honour and humanity, pale and trembling, in a faltering voice, she said, 'And if I confess what Struensee has said to be true, may he hope for mercy?' which words she pronounced with the most affecting voice, and with all the captivations of youth, beauty, and majesty in distress. S—— nodded, as if to assure her of Struensee's safety upon those terms, and immediately drew up her confession to that effect, and presented it to her to sign; upon this her frame became agitated with the most violent emotions; she took up the pen and began to write her name, and proceeded as far as *Carol*—when observing the malicious joy which sparkled in the eyes of S——, she became convinced that the whole was a base stratagem, and, throwing away the pen, exclaimed, 'I am deceived: Struensee never accused me, I know him too well; he never could have been guilty of so great a crime.' She endeavoured to rise, but her strength failed her; she sunk down, fainted, and fell back into her chair. In this state, the barbarous and audacious S—— put the pen between her fingers, which he held and guided: and before the unfortunate princess could recover, the letters ——— *ina Matilda* were added. The commissioners immediately departed, and left her alone: upon her recovering and finding them gone, she conjectured the full horror of her situation.

"The circumstances of the trial are known to the

British reader. The grand tribunal divorced the queen, separated her for ever from the king, and proposed to blemish the birth of the Princess Louisa, but the cruel design was never executed. Uhlal exerted all the powers of his eloquence for the two unfortunate counts. Humanity revolts at their sentence, which the unhappy king, it is said, signed with thoughtless gaiety: they had been confined from the 17th of January, and on the 28th of March, at 11 o'clock, were drawn out to execution, in two separate carriages, in a field near the east gate of the town. Brandt ascended the scaffold first, and displayed the most undaunted intrepidity. After his sentence was read, and his coat of arms torn, he calmly prayed a few minutes, and then spoke with great mildness to the people. Upon the executioner endeavouring to assist him in taking off his pelisse, he said, 'Stand off; do not presume to touch me.' He then stretched out his hand, which, without shrinking from the blow, was struck off, and almost at the same moment his head was severed from his body. Struensee, during this bloody scene, stood at the bottom of the scaffold in trembling agony, and became so faint when his friend's blood gushed through the boards, and trickled down the steps, that he was obliged to be supported as he ascended them: here his courage wholly forsook him; he several times drew back his hand, which was dreadfully maimed before it was cut off; at length he was obliged to be held down, before the executioner could perform his last office. Copenhagen was unpeopled on the day of this savage sacrifice; but though the feelings of the vast crowd which surrounded the scaffold had been artfully wrought upon by Juliana and her partizans, they beheld the scene of butchery with horror, and retired to their homes in sullen silence. Nothing but the spirited conduct of our then ambassador, Sir Robert Keith, prevented the queen from being immolated at the same time.

"On the 27th of May, a squadron of two British frigates and a cutter, under the command of the gallant Captain Macbride, cast anchor off Helsingfors, and on the 30th every thing was finally arranged for the removal of the queen. Upon the barge being announced, she clasped her infant daughter to her breast, and shed upon her a shower of tears. The queen then sunk into an apparent stupor: upon recovering, she prepared to tear herself away; but the voice, the smiles, and endearing motions of the babe, chained her to the spot: at last, summoning up all her resolution, she once more took it to her arms, and, in all the ardour and agony of distracted love, imprinted upon its lips the farewell

well kiss, and returning it to the attendant, exclaimed, 'Away! away! I now possess nothing here;' and was supported to the barge in a state of agony which baffles description. Upon the queen approaching the frigate, the squadron saluted her as the sister of his Britannic Majesty; and when she came on board, Captain Macbride hoisted the Danish colours, and insisted upon the fortress of Cronberg saluting her as Queen of Denmark, which salute was returned with two guns less. The squadron then set sail for Stade in the Hanoverian dominions; but, owing to contrary winds, was detained within sight of the castle the whole day: in the early part of the following morning its spires were still faintly visible, and until they completely faded in the mist of distance, the queen sat upon the deck, her eyes rivetted upon them, and her hands clasped in silent agony. Upon her landing at Stade, she proceeded to a hunting-seat upon the borders of the Elbe, where she remained a few months, until the castle of Zell, destined for her future residence, was prepared for her: she removed to it in the autumn; here her little court was remarked for its elegance and accomplishments, for its bounty to the peasantry, and the cheerful serenity which reigned throughout. The queen spent much of her time alone; and having obtained the portraits of her children from Denmark, she placed them in a retired apartment, and frequently addressed them in the most affecting manner, as if present.

"So passed away the time of this beautiful and accomplished exile, until the 11th of May, 1775, when a rapid inflammatory fever put a period to her afflictions, in the 24th year of her age."

In 1780, his Danish majesty acceded to the armed neutrality proposed by the empress of Russia. But the whole of his conduct having evinced such debility of understanding as to disqualify him for the management of public affairs, another court revolution took place on the 16th of April, 1784. The queen dowager's friends were removed, and a new council formed under the auspices of the prince-royal: some of the former old members were restored to the cabinet; and no regard was to be paid for the future to any instrument, unless signed by the king, and countersigned by the prince-royal.

The conduct of this prince manifested for a great length of time, a consistency of behaviour which enabled him to pursue, with unremitting zeal, the prudent and benevolent measures which he planned for the interest and happiness of his country. He has had the magnanimity to restore to the peasantry on the royal demesnes their long-lost liberties, and abolished many other grievances, under which they laboured:

to this might be added, the exertions he has made for the general diffusion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to the societies formed for the encouragement of learning, arts and sciences; together with numerous other excellent internal regulations. In 1792, he acceded to the plan of Count Schimmelmann for the gradual abolition of the slave trade, by which all traffic in negroes, on the part of Danish subjects, ceased in 1803.

From the beginning of the French Revolution, Denmark rejected every solicitation to join the coalition of potentates against France; and it was not till 1800, when the overwhelming power of that country had either overrun or subjugated the minor kingdoms of Europe, that Denmark joined the confederacy formed by the northern powers against the naval superiority of England. But this league was of short duration, being speedily dissolved by the appearance of a British fleet in the Baltic, under the command of Sir Hyde Parker and the immortal Nelson; the latter of whom, on the 2d of April, 1801, forced the line of defence formed by the Danish fleet before Copenhagen, and compelled the Danes to agree to a cessation of arms to preserve their capital: soon after which the dispute between England and the northern powers was amicably adjusted by a treaty.

Nothing farther worthy of observation occurred in the history of this country till 1807, when this kingdom again became the unwilling seat of devastation and bloodshed. After the defeat of the Russians and their allies, the peace of Tilsit was produced, previous to which the two emperors of France and Russia had an interview, when, among other things, it was projected that the fleet of Denmark should be secured, and conveyed either to a Russian or French port, in order that it might be brought to act against England. The British ministry having received information respecting this subject, immediately planned an expedition of a considerable naval and military force. At first propositions were made to the Danish government, that their fleet should be taken, during the war, under the protection of Great Britain; and be restored after the conclusion of a general peace. This offer they treated with disdain, which caused the English squadron to bombard Copenhagen; after suffering very severely, the governor offered to capitulate, upon which the whole of their fleet fell into our hands. Since that period the court of Denmark has been entirely attached to the politics of the other continental powers under the influence of France.

On the 13th of March, 1808, the prince regent succeeded, upon his father's death, to the throne of this kingdom, under the title of Frederic VI.

CHAP. IV.

SWEDEN.

Name—Situation, Extent, and Boundaries—Divisions, Cities, Towns, &c.—Climate, Soil, and Agriculture—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Rivers and Lakes—Mountains and Forests—Character and Manners of the Inhabitants, &c.—Manufactures and Commerce—Learning and Language—Government—Revenue—Religion—History, &c. &c.

Name. THIS country, to which the attention of Europe has, within the last few years, been peculiarly attracted, is called in the present language of the country *Swearike*, or the Kingdom of Swea, an appellation of great antiquity, and probably derived from the ancient *Suiones*, who appear to have inhabited this part of Scandinavia.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries.—Sweden is situated between 56 and 69 deg. north latitude, and 10 and 30 deg. east longitude, and is in length 800 miles, and in breadth 500. It is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categat, on the south; by the impassable mountains of Norway on the west; by Danish and Norwegian Lapland on the north; and by the Gulf of Bothnia and Russia on the east.

Divisions, Chief Towns, &c.—Sweden is divided at present into five general parts; viz. SWEDEN PROPER, GOTHLAND, NORDLAND, BOTHNIA, and SWEDISH LAPLAND.

SWEDEN PROPER.

This division extends 710 miles from south to north, and about 225 from east to west. The country is fruitful, though mountainous, and is subdivided into the five following provinces; viz. UPLAND, SUDERMANIA, NERIKE, WESTERMANLAND, and DALECARLIA.

UPLAND.

Upland, surrounded on the north-east and east by the Baltic Sea, extends about 75 miles from north to south, and 50 from east to west. The most considerable cities and towns are as follow:

1. *Stockholm*, the capital of the kingdom, and

the residence of the king, is situated in 59 deg. 20 min. north lat. at the junction of the Baltic and the Mæler Lake, and has thus the convenience of both salt and fresh water. Its circuit, computed from one gate to the other, is two Swedish miles; and it stands partly on islands, and partly on peninsulas, somewhat resembling the city of Venice. Most of the streets are broad, straight, and regular, being kept very clean, and the market-places are spacious. The public buildings are numerous, and great ornaments to the place, which is considerably larger than Copenhagen; but its superiority of size results more from singularity of situation than any real advantage. It is built on seven small islands, or rocks, formed by the river; and the suburbs extend on the main land a considerable way north and south. A variety of contrasted and enchanting views are formed by numberless rocks of granite, rising boldly from the surface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houses, or feathered with wood. The inequality of the ground renders almost all the streets steep and inconvenient for carriages, and they are badly paved; but the houses are lofty and handsome, though chiefly composed of brick. It is half as large again as it was in the reign of Charles XII. and in the new quarter there are many noble streets of great length. The harbour is an inlet of the Baltic; the water is as pellucid as crystal, and of such depth that ships of the largest burden can approach the quay, which is very broad, near an English mile long, and lined with spacious buildings and warehouses. The haven is capacious enough to contain 1000 sail of ships; but with all its convenience, the utility of its situation is diminished, from the difficulty of communication with the sea, here being no tides, and the whole being frozen up four months in the year. At the extremity of the harbour several streets rise, one above another, in form of an amphitheatre; and the palace, a magnificent building, crowns the summit. Towards the sea, about two or three miles from the city, the harbour is contracted into a narrow strait, and, winding among high rocks, is lost to the sight. This, with the prospect terminated with distant hills

hills overspread with trees, exhibits such singular views as is beyond the power of words to delineate. The palace, a large quadrangular stone edifice, elegant and stately in its style of architecture, was begun to be built by Charles XI. and continued under Frederic and succeeding monarchs. It has a citadel within. During the winter the whole royal family reside in it: many of the apartments are splendidly furnished; but these are three or four pair of stairs high, the palace serving for many public uses, and all the rooms of the first and second floors, which are small, being appropriated to the private meetings of the senate and the courts of judicature. The senate-house, where the public meetings of the privy-council are held, is a regular, fine edifice, and makes a respectable appearance. Excepting in the suburbs, where the houses are of wood, painted red, the generality of the buildings are of stone, or brick stuccoed white; there is also a public bank, covered with copper, as are the houses of the nobility, and thus appear rich and beautiful to the eye. The suburbs being mostly built of wood, are liable to accidents from fire; but to remove the danger as much as possible, the city is divided into 12 wards, and in each of these are a master and four assistants, whose duty it is to repair to the fire immediately, with a number of porters and labourers. They have also a fire-watch in each church steeple; and a bell is rung on the first appearance of any such calamity.

M. Küttner, an intelligent traveller, who visited this city in 1799, has published a particular statement of it.

"The royal palace," he says, "situated in what is called the city, is one of the most extensive, splendid, and regular buildings of the kind I ever saw. During the reign of Charles XI. it was commenced upon the plan of M. Tessin, which, however, was not strictly followed. The turbulent reign of Charles XII. and a variety of other circumstances, delayed the removal of the royal family into it till the middle of the last century; and it was not till the reign of the late king that it was completed. It is a regular square, inclosing an extensive court, and having a high terrace on the side towards the sea. Besides the apartments of the king, the queen, the queen-dowager, and the dukes of Sudermania and East Gothland, it contains a very neat chapel, the hall of the states, a gallery of paintings, the museum, and the king's library. The apartments are well contrived, and, if kept in good condition, they would be handsome. In their present state, they exhibit an extraordinary mixture of pomp and meanness. Even the frames of almost all the windows are worse than I would

suffer to be in the meanest rooms of my house. The late king was always in want of money, and during the regency many of these apartments appear to have been entirely neglected.

"The gallery of paintings would be of little importance in Italy; but it would be in vain to expect any choice collection of art in this northern latitude, and in a country so depressed by poverty; the spectator, indeed, ought rather to wonder at finding so much, than that he does not meet with more.

"The museum is of far greater value: I am indeed astonished, when I consider that the articles it contains were collected only by Gustavus III. It is, strictly speaking, a collection of antiques, which has been denominated the Museum, probably after that in the Vatican. The antique statues, vases, and large chandeliers, are arranged with taste, in a saloon which combines simplicity with beauty. In a smaller apartment, behind the former, are the busts, the smaller statues, and bas reliefs. Among the statues there are not only many good ones, but some which would attract notice in any collection; among the rest, a Minerva, with an extremely beautiful head, several of the Muses, and a Priestess. But what deserves particular attention, is an Endymion, in the finest style, and of very great value. It is a figure somewhat larger than life, lying asleep, and quite naked. One foot and a small part of the face are new.

The palace stands just high enough to overlook the greatest part of the city, the islands, and adjacent country. It is a view at once magnificent and sublime. The lofty terrace affords both a delightful prospect and an agreeable promenade. The garden belonging to the palace is likewise very pleasant. It is situated on an eminence, which, though lower than many of the circumjacent buildings, is considerably more elevated than the quay. In this part of the quay, close to the water-side, is to be placed the colossal statue of Gustavus III. the pedestal of which, of very fine granite, is already erected.

"The chapel belonging to the palace is pretty, but in no wise remarkable. The hall in which the king assembles the states, when he wishes to address them as a body, is spacious, and of a handsome figure. All the architectural embellishments, though in a good taste, are only of wood. In a building of this kind, and in a country where so many beautiful species of stone abound, this circumstance is rather striking. As the states are now seldom convened at Stockholm, this hall is only used for public festivities.

"Gustavus Vasa was the founder of the
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royal library, which has not been much augmented in the two last centuries; for it now comprehends scarcely 30,000 volumes, and contains nothing of much consequence.

"Stockholm likewise possesses an observatory. It is situated on a bare and desert hill in the Nordermalm, which is by far the most lofty of any in that part of the city, and overlooks all the others. Here is consequently a fine field for observation, but it is unfortunately unprovided with instruments.

"The arsenal is a large building, but indifferently stored, except with standards and trophies, chiefly taken from the Imperialists, Poles, Russians, and Danes; and of these there are a great number. Among other curiosities here, is the skin of the horse (stuffed) which carried Gustavus Adolphus at the battle of Lutzen; a boat made by Peter the Great at Sardam, and taken by a Swedish vessel, as it was conveying by sea to Petersburg; and the clothes and hat worn by Charles XII. when he was shot in the trenches before Fredericshall. The coat is a plain blue uniform, like that of a common soldier, with gilt buttons, yellow waistcoat and breeches, and black cravat, such as he has always been painted in; the stockings are sewed to the breeches; his boots are thick and large; and his gloves of white leather, with stiff tops, reaching almost to the elbows; the right-hand glove is considerably stained with blood, the left only sprinkled with a few drops; and part of a bracelet he wore that day, a little bloody also.

"The royal stables and the great hospital also make some figure, but the market is worth notice. Butchers' meat is sold in the shambles on the shore, whilst vegetables and other marketable commodities are exposed to sale in boats upon the water. This is at once a singular and a pleasing sight. The moving shops, and variety of wares, that are passing before the eye; the mixed and busy multitudes which crowd the surface of the water, renders this a very agreeable scene.

"There are upwards of 5000 houses in Stockholm, chiefly of stone, four or five stories high, built on piles. It is computed to be as populous as Bristol. There are twenty churches covered with copper, and superbly decorated with a great variety of splendid ornaments, having lofty spires, with musical bells in their steeples, but no large bells. In the church of St. Nicholas, which is the largest, and supported by marble pillars, are a great number of tombs of different kinds of marble. This church has a picture on the right side of the altar, upon the wall, well painted, describing paradise and hell, reaching from the floor to the roof. It is very rich in

plate, and has a chalice of beaten gold, enriched with jewels, which, according to Motraye, is not worth less than forty thousand crowns. In the church of Ritterholm are the sepulchres of the kings of Sweden. The tomb of Charles XII. is a raised tomb of black marble, with no other inscription than his name; over it are laid, in cast bronze, a club and a lion's skin."

Mr. Wraxall, speaking of this tomb, says: "I had several conversations with the natives here on the subject of the victories and death of the last of these heroes. They are almost unanimous in the apprehension, or rather avowal, that he was put to death by those about him, and did not fall by a shot from the walls of Fredericshall, as is commonly supposed."

"If you go from the City and the Ritterholm, to the Södermalm and Nordermalm," says Küttner, "you at first meet in every direction with handsome regular streets. Proceed no farther, and Stockholm will appear like any other metropolis; but the farther you go, the more you find the number of good houses diminish, till they at length dwindle away into cottages. You then arrive at immense naked rocks of granite, between which you meet with gardens, windmills, tobacco-plantations, and wretched huts, all of which belong to the town, and are situated within the inclosure by which it is surrounded.

"In these parts of the town I have met with situations, in which I imagined myself among the Alps, where I saw nothing but a few miserable wooden huts, scattered among the wildest and most romantic rocks, which conceal the other part of the city so completely, that you imagine yourself in an uninhabited country. If, however, you ascend to the summit of one of these rocks, you enjoy the most romantic, and at the same time the most magnificent, views of a splendid metropolis; in a word, you survey, with one look, palaces, churches, islands, lakes, harbours crowded with vessels, intermingled with naked rocks, and all the rudeness of Alpine scenery. This it is that renders Stockholm perhaps *unique* in its way. I never beheld from one point of view any thing so beautiful, so magnificent, and so sublime, nor yet any thing so mean, so rude, and so wild, within the circumference of a metropolis.

"The king has several palaces besides the one at Stockholm. There is one at the east end of Ladugards-land: near it is a park, and a fine orangery; the park is almost surrounded with water. It has a medicinal spring within, and nothing can be more delightful than the beautiful disposition of the fine groves, lawns, and walks, with which it is diversified. There is another

another palace at Carlberg, with a garden laid out in an elegant taste, and decorated with beautiful statues, &c.; another at Ulrichsdal with a fine park, and curious grotto, a few miles from Stockholm. But the finest of all his palaces is at Drottningholm, about a Swedish mile west of Stockholm. Facing the south front is a large garden, with a variety of fountains, and on the north commanding a view of the shipping at sea. The gardens, however, give us no idea of royalty; they are laid out in the Dutch taste, and, considering this place is the summer residence of the king, it is wonderful they are not kept in neater order. The palace is a stately fabric, built with bricks, on the banks of the Mæler Lake; and all the apartments demonstrate the fine taste of the mother of the late king. Here is a great collection of antiquities from the ruins of Herculaneum, with a variety of gems and medals, natural and Roman curiosities: here is also a well-collected library in every branch of science, besides two galleries of paintings, one descriptive of the victories of Charles X. the other those of his son Charles XI. In the gardens is built a little semicircular pleasure-palace, fitted up in the Chinese taste. The library displays great elegance and taste; and the binding of the books (which for a private collection are very numerous) is extremely rich and beautiful. The collection of natural and artificial curiosities is arranged in the most pleasing manner; but we had not time to examine it very minutely.

The decorations of the royal apartments are rather tawdry, and many of the pictures bear the stamp of the French school established by Boucher and Co. It may, in general, be objected to a great part of the embellishments of this palace, that they are not sufficiently manly, and appear more suited to the dressing-room of a lady than the residence of a king. "We inspected," says Küttner, "every part of the building, though the family now resides here: indeed, so little ceremony was observed, that we were shewn into an antichamber, from which, to my great astonishment, I perceived the royal family at dinner. The company was in a gallery, open towards the antichamber, in which a numerous band of music was playing."

The situation of Stockholm, in the opinion of Mr. Wraxall, is injudicious and improper, for the capital of the kingdom. The inhabitants assured him that the place owed its origin (about 500 years ago) to an accidental contingency. The viceroy who governed the country at that time, under Christian II. of Denmark, determined to found a city; and, instead of fixing on a proper spot for the execution of his plan, he set a large piece of wood afloat in the Mæler lake, resolv-

ing that on whatever place it stopped, there should be his city. A small island stopped the log in its way; and the name of *Stockholm* was given to it in consequence.

The principal amusement in Stockholm is an opera, performed every Thursday, in Swedish. The building is handsome and large, magnificently illuminated; and the dresses of the actors are superb. In winter the weather is too cold to seek amusement abroad; and as soon as the ice and snow leave the surface of the land, every one that can afford a country-house, takes his amusement there. They have a theatre, however, in which French comedies are represented, and sometimes concerts and oratorios: but the musical performers are Germans, and not much encouraged.

2. *Upsal*, 30 miles north-west of Stockholm, in ancient times, was the chief seat of the sovereigns of Sweden, and where they held their supreme tribunal. The greatest sacrifices offered in all the northern provinces were brought to this place in the time of paganism; and the most eminent heathen priests, had their residence here. It was the most ancient town in the Swedish highlands, and the chief ornament of the whole country. It is now an university with an archiepiscopal see, and a neat city, though not large, containing about 3000 inhabitants, and 1500 students. The ground plot is extremely regular, divided into two equal parts, by a small rivulet; and the streets are drawn at right angles, from a central kind of square. A few of the houses are built with brick, and stuccoed; but the generality are constructed with trunks, smoothed into the shape of planks, painted red, and the roofs covered with turf. There is not a stone edifice in it. Each house has its small court-yard, or garden. Old Upsala, the residence of the high-priest of Oden, stood at a small distance from the present city, which rose upon the ruins of the ancient one, as it fell into decay. The old palace by Gustavus Vasa was consumed by fire in 1702. The remains, which stand on an elevated spot, and command a fine prospect of the adjacent country, consist of one wing, a small part of another, and the principal front, which has been repaired, and covered with a red stucco. The room in which the diet of Sweden used to assemble, is now converted into a granary, 140 feet long, and 90 broad; and a few other apartments in the broken wing are used as a common goal. Underneath are three dungeons, formerly appropriated to state prisoners.

"Upsal," says Küttner, "is the handsomest and neatest of all the Swedish towns of the middling class; and, to compare small things with large,

reminds me of Oxford. Its most magnificent building, though only of brick, is the cathedral church; but the beauty of the inside far exceeds that of the exterior. In my opinion, it is the finest church I have seen during the last four years. It perfectly coincides with my ideas of a temple, combining magnitude, dignity, and simplicity. It is an ancient structure; but has been altered and adapted to the modern taste, though without any unnecessary or paltry decorations. Every thing is in its proper place, and all its parts are grand and noble. Such a cleanliness reigns throughout as I have no where met with but in some English churches, and in St. Peter's at Rome. The interior is in the purest Gothic style; and the long row of white massive columns afford, from the end opposite the altar, a view truly sublime. At that distance, the altar likewise makes a very fine appearance; but on approaching, you perceive that it is only painted wood. This large and high altar on one side, and the organ (which is also of great magnitude) on the other, are the only objects in the church which are ornamented, and are perfectly calculated to heighten the simplicity of the rest of the structure.

On the sides of the church are a great number of monuments, of which only one is particularly distinguished as a production of the arts. This is the monument of the Archbishop Menander, of variegated Italian and white Carrara marble, which displays great magnificence and taste. It was executed at Rome by the directions of his son, M. Von Fredenheim, who is now intendant-general of the king. The archbishop died in 1786. The great Linnæus has nothing but a common flat grave-stone, placed over him by his son, who is also dead. This church is likewise the burial place of Gustavus Vasa, whose monument is very old and mean.

SUDERMANIA.

Sudermania, or Sudermanland, is so termed from its situation to the south of the last-mentioned province, than which it is more fertile, producing a little wheat and other grain. The chief places are,

1. *Nikoping*, the capital, stands on the shore of the Baltic, 48 miles to the southward of Stockholm. It is a place of some trade, with a commodious harbour, and a castle, in which the dukes of Sudermania used to reside.

2. *Strengthniss* is a small town on the south side of the lake Mæler, the see of a bishop, suffragan to the metropolitan of Upsal. Some Gothic inscriptions in the Runic characters evince the antiquity of the place. Charles IX. is buried in the cathedral, which is an ancient

Gothic edifice. Opposite to the town an annual fair is held upon the ice.

WESTERMANIA.

Westermania, or Westermanland, so called from its situation to the province of Upland, which contains the capital, had formerly some considerable silver mines, but they are now exhausted. The chief places are,

1. *Westeroes*, the capital, situated on the north side of the lake Mæler, about 35 miles from Stockholm. It is a bishop's see, and well defended by a strong castle. The hereditary convention was settled here in the year 1544, by which the succession to the crown of Sweden was settled in the family of Gustavus Vasa.

2. *Kiöping*, seated at the western extremity of the Mæler lake, has a considerable trade with the capital (from whence it is navigable), and the interior parts of the kingdom.

3. *Sala*, about 85 miles north-west from Stockholm, famous for its silver mine, which has been wrought for several centuries, though now not very productive. This town is pleasantly situated; and according to the account of Messrs. Paterson and Henderson, who were sent hither by the London Missionary Society in 1808, it contains above 2000 inhabitants. The church they represent as being large and commodious, the minister of which was a Swedish earl.

NERIKE.

Nerike, or Nericia, south of the last mentioned, contains several lakes and rivers, of which the Trosa separates the country into two parts, from west to east. Silver mines were formerly worked in this province, but at present it produces only iron, sulphur, and alum.

Oerebro, the chief town, situated at the western extremity of the lake Hielman, is a small insignificant place, containing nothing worthy particular description.

DELICARLIA.

Delicarlia, or Dalecarlia, contains only a few inconsiderable villages, though the whole country is represented by Messrs. Paterson and Henderson as being very populous. The mountains abound with iron and copper, and some of the mines are incredibly deep. The inhabitants are characterized as more courageous, bold, and open, than the other Swedes, as well as possessed of a greater spirit of independence.

GOTHLAND.

The second grand division of Sweden, called Gothland, comprises EAST GOTHLAND, WEST GOTHLAND, and SOUTH GOTHLAND.

East

East Gothland is again subdivided into four provinces, or governments; viz. GOTHLAND PROPER, SMALAND, and the Islands of GOTHLAND and OELAND.

West Gothland comprehends four provinces; viz. WEST GOTHLAND PROPER, WERMELAND, DALSLAND, and BOHNSLEHN.

South Gothland comprehends three provinces; viz. HALLAND, SCHÖNEN, and BLEKINGEN.

EAST GOTHLAND PROPER,

To the south of Sudermania, is a fertile, open, flat country, producing corn, cattle, fowl, venison, fish, &c.

The chief town, called *Norköping* (which term implies the Northern Market), is populous, large, and has considerable commerce, being formerly reckoned the second town in the kingdom, till it was surpassed by Gottenburg. The place is likewise celebrated for a salmon fishery, which affords maintenance to many people.

SMALAND.

This province, situated to the south of the last mentioned, abounds in wood, cattle, copper, lead, and iron. The chief towns are,

1. *Calmar*, a very considerable city, 160 miles to the southward of Stockholm; it is built upon a strait of the Baltic, called Calmar Sound, and is situated opposite to the isle of Oeland. It is divided into the Old and New Town. Old Calmar is famous by a deed executed there in the year 1393, by which the three northern crowns of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, were settled on Queen Margaret. This is called in history the Union of Calmar. Eric, Margaret's successor, founded 13 prebends here, and gave a decree, by which he put the church of Calmar among the collegiate ones. After the division of the crowns, which the fatal union of Calmar had united, the city became a frontier town, with regard to the Danes, who were in possession of Schönen. It was often taken, retaken, and plundered; and, to complete its ruin, was burnt to the ground in the year 1547, nothing escaping the fire but the church, and about threescore houses. Soon after this misfortune, the new city was built at a musquet-shot's distance from the Old Town, in a little island called Owarnholm. This city is large, the streets broad and straight, and the houses well built; but it is not populous. The situation of this city renders it very strong, all the avenues to it being full of marshes, or cut off by water from the sea, which abounds with rocks, between which there are, as it were, so many abysses, that it is impossible to approach the place, either in boats, horseback, or on foot. On the sea-side there is a long mole, built with

stone, along which boats and ships ride secure. This mole is defended by a fortress called Grimskar, built at about 50 paces from it, on a rock surrounded by the sea, and where a garrison is constantly kept. Behind the Old Town stands the castle, which is of very difficult access, having on one side the sea, which is full of rocks, and on the other good ramparts, large bastions, and ditches full of water. This city is, at present, the residence of a superintendent for the government of the clergy, who is honoured with a place in the public consistory of the kingdom. This is a town of good trade, and the passage from Sweden into Germany.

2. *Waxjö* is a place of some trade, and worthy of note on that account only.

3. *Jonköping* is a very neat country town, and most delightfully situated on the lake Vetter. "I looked," says Mr. Wraxall, "down from the top of the church on it, and the surrounding meadows, which were all cultivated, and, after the deserts I had passed, were peculiarly grateful to the eye. The lake itself, which is near 200 English miles in length, extends, far beyond the view, to the north, and rather resembles the sea than a piece of inland water."

ISLAND OF GOTHLAND.

Gothland, or Gothia Insola, is situated in the Baltic Sea, over-against the coast of East Gothland, from which it is about 20 miles distant to the east. It lies between 57 and 58 deg. of north lat. and between 18 deg. 30 min. and 20 deg. of east long. Its greatest length, from the south-west to the north-east, is about 56 miles; but its breadth is not above 18 miles from east to west. Olaus Magnus says it was called Gothland, that is to say, *Good Land*, because it is fruitful, abounding with all the necessities of life, and so well provided with the blessings of nature, that it may be ranked among the best islands in the north. "It is," says he, in another place, "a good land, in several respects: the inhabitants are a good sort of people; there are good harbours all round the coast; the soil is good; it abounds in pastures, cattle, wild-fowl, fish, good water, woods, and beautiful marble." This island belonged formerly to the Prussian knights, who resigned it to the Danes, in 1408, for 9000 crowns. The Swedes obtained it in 1645; but it was retaken by the Danes in 1677, and restored to the Swedes by the treaty of Fontainebleau in 1679. There is but one considerable city, which is

Wishy, or *Wisburg*, on the western coast of it. It is built on the declivity of a rock, near the sea-shore, surrounded with a strong wall, and defended by a castle, erected near the harbour, where

where the governor of the island usually resides. It began to be important towards the end of the 8th century, after which time it became so populous, that it contained 10,000 inhabitants, most of them merchants, without reckoning the Danes, Swedes, Vandals, Saxons, Russians, Jews, Greeks, Prussians, Polanders, and Livonians, who traded there. These foreigners were so numerous that they could make head against the inhabitants; and, in the year 1238, there arose a quarrel amongst them, and a battle was fought, in which great numbers were killed on both sides. The inhabitants gained the victory; and Magnus, king of Sweden, reconciled them with the foreigners.

The inhabitants of Wisby are said to be the first who made hydrographical tables and sea-charts. They also pretend to the glory of being the first that made laws for regulating trade and navigation. But La Martiniere, a French writer, observes, that they have rather admitted than invented them. He says, that, being grown rich by navigation, they introduced among themselves the famous laws of Oleron, an island in France, in order to decide by them the disputes that might arise amongst merchants. They translated those laws into their own language, and made some additions to them; by which means they were not only looked upon as the authors of them, but acquired also the reputation of being the most famous traders in Europe. In 1597 the Hans Towns sent deputies to Lubeck, in order to draw up laws concerning navigation, which laws are still observed throughout the whole Baltic; but they, properly speaking, are the very laws of Wisby, with some additions and improvement; and what shews that these laws are more modern than those of Oleron, is, that those of Lubeck are fuller than those of Wisby, as the latter are more complete than those of Oleron. This island, in the beginning of 1809, was surprised by the Russians, who, after committing great devastation, relinquished it on the arrival of a British squadron in the Baltic.

OELAND.

This is a narrow slip of land over against the continent of South Gothland, from which it is separated by a strait, which is not above nine or ten miles broad, and is called Calmarsundt, or the Strait of Calmar. This island, the name of which signifies the *land of hay*, is about 70 miles long, from south to north; but its greatest breadth is not above 12 miles. The soil affords good pasture; and many herds of oxen, horses, and fallow-deer, feed upon it. The western coast is not very populous, containing only two villages, named *Alebeck* and *Smedeby*, with the

city of *Borkolm*, the capital of this island. It lies under 56 deg. 57 min. north lat. and 18 deg. 80 min. east long. It is about 15 miles distant from Calmar towards the north-east, and is defended by a castle. The eastern coast, on the contrary, is very well peopled, and contains several towns and villages. There are many forts and castles to defend this island, that have been often attacked. In 1530 it was taken by the Danes, soon after which the Swedes recovered it; but it being lost again, Gustavus Adolphus finally retook it in 1613, since which time it has been constantly possessed by the crown of Sweden.

WEST GOTHLAND PROPER.

This is a large province, watered by many lakes and rivers, and abounds with excellent pastures, where great quantities of cattle are bred, and the country is enriched by the sale of them.

1. The most considerable town is *Gottenburg*, or *Gothburg*, which stands on the Scager Rack, or Categat, on the southern branch of the river *Göthelba*, which there falls into the sea, and forms the harbour of this place; it is 170 miles distant from Calmar towards the west, and 225 from Stockholm to the south-west. It is not an ancient town, being built in the year 1607, under the reign of King Charles IX. His successors have granted it great privileges, by which it is become a considerable mart. The Dutch carry on a large trade here. In the war of 1644, the Danes exerted their utmost efforts to ruin this place, but to no purpose; and it has been so well fortified since, that it is now one of the strongest maritime towns in the kingdom.

Gottenburg, from its situation, much exceeds any other sea-port in Sweden for trade, except Stockholm. Formerly Norkoping exceeded it; but the establishment of the Swedish East India company here, has been of very great advantage to it, by bringing much other trade; so that now it is the second port in Sweden. They have here large magazines and warehouses, with an exceeding good dock for building, repairing, and careening their ships. There are also at Gottenburgh several tolerable churches; and among other buildings, the arsenal and town-house are pretty considerable. The houses are mostly built after the Dutch plan, and the streets are intersected with canals. The commerce of this place is very thriving; the number of ships belonging to it having, for these 30 years past, been much upon the increase. Indeed, trade seems to be spreading much more amongst these northern nations than formerly. The uniting of the Isle of Man to the crown of Great Britain, where the merchants

merchants of Gottenburg, as well as those of Copenhagen, had considerable magazines of East India goods; was a terrible loss to the Swedish and Danish companies. In 1808, an accidental fire did great injury to the town, which, however, at present, is nearly repaired; and in the place of several wooden erections, handsome stone edifices have been built. The number of inhabitants is about 25,000.

2. *Skara, Skaren*, or *Skar*, a bishop's see, was the seat of the ancient kings of Sweden, and had a palace, one of the stateliest not only in the north, but in all Europe, as may still be judged by its situation, walls, and structure. It is now a defenceless town, though formerly the metropolis of West Gothland.

VERMELAND,

To the north of the last-mentioned province, is mountainous and bleak, containing several lakes and rivers. The chief town is

Carlstadt, a considerable place, situated on the northern banks of the lake *Wener*; it is strongly fortified both by art and nature, and has frequently been taken and retaken in the wars between Sweden and Denmark. Considering its inland situation, it is tolerably well built, and has a considerable trade.

DALSAND,

To the south-west of Wermeland, is tolerably fertile, abounding in grain and cattle.

Amal, the capital, seated on the western coast of the lake *Wener*, is a place of good trade; but contains little worthy of particular description.

BOHNSLEHN,

To the south-west of the last mentioned, lies along the coast of the Scager Rack, or entrance of the Baltic; and, from its maritime situation, might, if properly attended to, become the seat of a considerable commerce, which, however, at present, is chiefly centred in Gottenburg, which stands at the southern extremity of this province. The principal town is

Kongshall, situated on the sea-coast, which contains nothing worthy of particular notice.

HALLAND,

Situated south of the last mentioned, is a pleasant and fruitful country, which belonged formerly to Denmark; but was, in 1645, engaged to the Swedes, as a security for a free passage of the Sound, and was afterwards yielded to them for ever by the treaty of Roskild. The chief town here is

Halmstad, situated on the coast of the Cate-gat, which here forms a very good harbour, and

renders this a place of some trade. It was fortified by Christian IV. king of Denmark, but yielded to Sweden, by the treaty of Bromsbro, in 1645.

SCHÖNEN,

Schönen, or Schanen, is separated from the island of Zealand, by the Sound, which washes its coast on the west. As it is the most southern, it is also the most fruitful province in Sweden, abounding with corn, cattle, fowl, and all the conveniences of life. It has also mines of silver, lead, and iron. This province belonged formerly to the Danes, but was yielded to the Swedes in 1660. The Danes again seized the greatest part of it in 1676 and 1677; but were obliged to restore it to the Swedes by the treaty concluded at Fontainebleau in France, September 16, 1679. The chief towns are,

1. *Lund* or *Lunden*, formerly the see of an archbishop; but in 1658, when the Swedes took the city, that dignity was removed to Copenhagen, and it is now only an episcopal see. It was adorned with an university erected by Charles IX. in 1661, which has produced eminent men, and particularly the celebrated Samuel Puffendorff; but it has been suppressed. This city was formerly very considerable, having 22 churches, whereof the cathedral of St. Lawrence is still a magnificent structure; having a very high spire, which is a land-mark to sailors; and a clock of the most ingenious contrivance, said to be the work of Casper Bartholinus.

2. *Helsingburg*, the chief place of communication between Sweden and Denmark, is situated on the celebrated passage of the Baltic, called the Sound, where it is not more than a mile broad. It is defended by a castle, and is well fortified on all sides; but contains nothing worthy of particular description.

BLEKINGEN,

To the north-east of Schönen, is a fertile and healthy province, producing the best timber in the kingdom. The chief town,

Carlsrona, stands on the coast of the Baltic, about 220 miles from the capital, on a small island, surrounded with other islands. These, with the woods of oak, beach, and birch, on all sides, render the place extremely pleasant. It is famous for the admiralty-college and dock-yard, separated from the town by a high stone wall; and a squadron of ships of war is here laid up. The dock is dug out of a mountain, to the depth of eighty feet, and is upwards of 300 feet long; its entrance towards the sea has a sufficient depth of water to float the largest men of war. It is closed by two flood-gates, and can be emptied in 10 hours, so as to become quite dry.

Küttner, speaking on this subject, says, "This place is the great and only port for Swedish men of war; the works, of which so much has been said, principally consist of the old and new docks, the former of which are described by Coxe and Buschin. Though the idea of hewing out of the rock a place for the reception and repair of ships was bold and grand, yet it is far surpassed by that of the new docks. The greatest part of the latter, as yet, exists only on paper, though Coxe spoke of them nineteen years ago. Not more than a tenth part is yet completed; but three-twentieths are so nearly finished, that they will be speedily ready for use.

"According to the proposed plan, there are to be twenty receptacles for the same number of ships of the line, where they are to be kept dry and under cover. If this plan were executed in a manner similar to that adopted at Venice, the difficulty and expence would not be very great. Here, on the contrary, the ships run immediately from the sea into these docks. It was therefore necessary to erect vast works against the violence of the sea, to construct a solid foundation for the walls and dams, as well as for the spot on which the ships are to stand, and to provide the whole with gates, about forty-eight feet in breadth, and almost 30 in height. The ground was quite uneven, partly covered by the sea, partly very low, and partly presenting high hills of granite. It was necessary to remove the latter, to fill up the former, and to prepare the ground. The projector conceived the bold idea of filling up the deep part, by covering the bottom with flat stones and cementing them with puzzolana; and this idea was executed with complete success.

"The figure of the new docks is a semicircle, which is divided from the centre to the circumference into four parts. In each of these divisions are receptacles for five vessels, separated from one another, and which can either be laid under water or kept dry. Each has a distinct gate, and a detached edifice, with a copper roof. The walls, or rather the vast dams, nearly forty feet thick, are of hewn granite, filled up in the middle with earth. The four principal divisions have each one common entrance for the five ships which they contain.

"Of all the four divisions only one has been completed since the year 1761, and in this only 2 out of the five docks are ready for use. Nothing has yet been done towards the other divisions, except excluding the water. The ground is partly granite, and partly a peculiar kind of marle, which is excellently adapted to the use of sculptors for modelling. M. Söderling, who is the director of the works, informed me that the dif-

ference in the expence of working the one or the other was so trifling as to be scarcely perceptible at the end of the year. The former is blasted, and is immediately serviceable on the spot for the construction of walls, while the latter must be dug up and carried away.

"Two hundred labourers are daily employed here during six months in the year. They each receive only a schilling and a half (about 2½d.) per day, and a loaf, which costs the king about three half-pence more. The reason why these labourers receive such low wages, is, because they are all land soldiers; that is, such who do not in general appear in uniform, but are exercised at certain times. Each of them has a hut and a small piece of land, which is given them by the crown.

"As docks are constructed for no more than 20 ships of the line, we may perceive from that circumstance, that this must be the extent of the naval force of Sweden. At the present moment (1799) the efficient force is considerably below that number. They have in all only 19 ships of the line; most of these were in the last war with Russia, in which some of them received great damage, so that if only the serviceable vessels were to be reckoned, the number would be considerably reduced. The largest Swedish ships of the line are only 74 guns; of these, they have no more than five, and the remaining fourteen are of 64; that is, such as the English never place in a line of battle, but when obliged by necessity.

"That part of the town in which the king's docks, and the buildings belonging to the admiralty, are situated, is separated from the rest of the place by a lofty stone wall. This wall is remarkable for having been erected by the Russian prisoners taken by Charles XII. The intention of this wall was to secure the buildings and the harbour against any fire that might break out in the other part of the town. It has since been declared of no use; and admiral Chapman, while he commanded the port, ordered the upper part to be taken down, and other buildings to be erected with the materials."

Carlsrona itself is situated on an island, or, it may be said, on several, if some detached parts, erected on very small islands, be included in the town. It is pretty extensive, and contains many good houses; but a great part of it was burned down about eighteen years since, and many of the ruins still remain. The new town-house is a very handsome structure; and the same might be said of the German church, if the cupola, covered with copper, were not so low. This town contains about 1800 houses, and 12,000 inhabitants.

NORDLAND,

The third grand division of this kingdom, is so called from its northern situation. It comprehends six subdivisions, or provinces; viz. GESTRIKELAND, HELSINGLAND, MEDELPAD, JEMPTLAND, HERJEDALEN, and ANGERMANLAND.

GESTRIKELAND, OR GESTRICIA,

Situated to the north of Upland in Sweden Proper, contains mines of copper, lead, and iron. The chief places are,

1. *Gefle*, which being seated at the mouth of the river Hasunda, here forming an excellent harbour, renders this a town of considerable trade with the interior of the country.

2. *Falun*, a considerable inland town, chiefly important on account of its proximity to the great copper mine, from whence the town is named. This mine is 80 fathoms deep, of great extent, and yields annually to the amount of £200,000 sterling, of which the king has one-fourth part in kind, and a duty of 25 per cent. on the remainder, if exported unwrought.

HELSINGLAND, OR HELSINGIA,

To the north of the province last mentioned, lies along the coast of the Bothnian Gulf; it is bleak, mountainous, and woody. The chief town is *Hudvickswall*, or *Hudvicksva*, situated in a fine bay, which enables it to carry on a considerable traffic in resin, pitch, tar, corn, timber, &c. and the other products of the inland parts of the country.

MEDELPAD

Is a small province, of a triangular form, to the north of the last mentioned, which it greatly resembles in appearance and produce.

Sundswall, or *Sundsvol*, the capital, is a considerable town, eligibly situated for trade, at the mouth of the river Indall, which here forms a capacious harbour, and, being navigable for some distance inland, vast quantities of timber and other produce are floated down hither for exportation, to the capital and other ports, from whence various articles of grocery, and East and West India produce, are returned and sent to all parts of the interior.

JEMPTLAND,

To the north-west of Medelpad, is mountainous, bleak, and rugged, being seated among the mountains that separate Sweden from Norway. The inhabitants lead a wandering life; and consequently there are no towns of particular note.

HERJEDALEN,

To the south of the preceding, consists chiefly of extensive forests and barren moors, with several mountains equal in height to the most celebrated in Europe. The inhabitants, who chiefly subsist by fishing and hunting, live a wandering life, and consequently the towns are inconsiderable.

ANGERMANLAND,

Seated on the shores of the Gulf of Bothnia, is the most northern province of this division; it abounds in timber and black cattle.

Hoernosand, or *Hernosand*, the capital, is a considerable town, situated at the estuary of the large river Sax, which, similar to all the ports of this kingdom, greatly contributes to increase the commerce of the place.

BOTHNIA,

The fourth grand division of this kingdom, situated at the farthest extremity of the large gulf, to which it gives name, was, previous to 1809, much more extensive than at present, stretching for a considerable distance on both sides of the gulf, and subdivided into two provinces, called WEST BOTHNIA, and EAST BOTHNIA, or CAJUNIA; the latter of which was, in 1809, wrested out of the hands of Sweden, and, together with the whole of Finland, annexed to the empire of Russia; so that the gulf of Bothnia is now the boundary between these northern potentates; and the remainder of this division may now, with great propriety, be considered as part of Swedish Lapland, which will introduce that country to our readers in a less crude and undefined manner than has hitherto been attempted.

SWEDISH LAPLAND.

That part of this immense country belonging to Sweden, according to a recent estimate, is about 100 German (equal to 400 English) miles in length, and 90 German (equal to 360 English) in breadth. The country is rude; the climate intensely severe; and, except on the shores of the Bothnian Gulf, cultivation is little understood. This country is under the superintendence of a prefect, appointed by the king. It is divided into six provinces, which take their respective names from the chief rivers that intersect them; viz. ANGERMANIAN LAPMARK, UMEAN LAPMARK, PITHEAN LAPMARK, LULEAN LAPMARK, TERNEAN LAPMARK, and KIMEAN LAPMARK.

ANGERMANIAN,

ANGERMANIAN, OR ASELE LAPMARK,

Is an inland province on the borders of the northern part of Norway; it has no place worthy of note.

UMEAN LAPMARK,

To the east of the last mentioned, is seated on the coast of the gulf of Bothnia, and the most fertile and populous of all the provinces.

Umea, the capital, 280 miles north of Stockholm, is seated at the mouth of a considerable river of the same name. The houses are mostly built of wood, painted red, and it has twice been burnt by the Russians. It carries on a considerable trade, the river here forming an excellent harbour.

PITHEAN LAPMARK,

Situated to the north of the last mentioned, is, in general, bleak and barren, except on the banks of the river Pithea, at the estuary of which into the gulf, stands *Pithea*, the capital of this province, about 80 miles south-west of Tornea; it is entirely built with timber, and, like most of the other towns upon the coast, derives its consequence from its situation.

LULEAN LAPMARK,

Situated at the north-western extremity of the kingdom, is extremely rugged and bare, except where it borders on the gulf, and along the banks of the Lulea river; near the estuary of which stands *Lulea*, the capital of the province, an inconsiderable place, meanly built of timber.

TORNEAN LAPMARK,

The most northern and extensive of all the provinces, bounded on the north by Danish and Russian Lapland, and on the south by the Bothnian Gulf, along the shores of which it is fertile and tolerably cultivated; but in the internal parts, beyond description, bare and rugged. The river Tornea runs in a direction from north to south for a considerable length, at the mouth of which stands

Tornea, the capital of this province and of the whole territory, 420 miles N. N. E. of Stockholm. It is a place of great trade, because the Laplanders from the interior, resort to the annual fairs here, in order to exchange their skins, and other produce, for what they want. The houses are mostly built of timber, with some stone edifices intermixed; but they are in general low, never exceeding two floors. The cold is here so intensely cold, that sometimes people lose their fingers and toes. The viceroy of Lapland resides here, and the place is tolerably well fortified.

KIMEA LAPMARK

Is situated at the north-western extremity of Lapland, and is by far the most rugged, and unproductive province. The climate is almost incredibly inhospitable and severe, notwithstanding which there are a number of inhabitants, but not a single town in the whole district.

Climate, Soil, and Agriculture.—The climate of Sweden is healthful: the winters are extremely cold; but as they approach with little intervention of autumn, so they depart suddenly, without such a gradation of spring as we experience in England. As soon as the sun has thoroughly thawed the land, it is in order for tillage. The power of the sun succeeding the winter's frost, with once ploughing, sets all the weeds loose; so that it is necessary to plough the land, at the end of the summer, before the frost sets in.

At Stockholm, the sun, in the midst of summer, is 13 hours and a half above the horizon, and for some weeks makes a continual day. In winter the days are proportionably shorter, the sun being up but five hours and a half; which defect is so well supplied, as to light, by the moon, the *aurora borealis*, the whiteness of the snow, clearness of the sky, and brilliancy of the stars, that travelling by night is as usual as by day, and journies are begun in the evening as frequently as in the morning. The twilight begins four or five hours before sun-rise, and lasts as long after sun-set, and thus affords a light sufficient for most of the necessary occasions of life. At Tornea (at Midsummer) which is in north latitude 66 deg. the sun does not set, but may be seen at midnight, with half its disk above the horizon. In winter the want of the sun's heat is supplied by stoves within doors, and fires without; and so necessary is good clothing against the severity of the cold, that the common people are better dressed than those of other parts of Europe. As the winters are severe, the summers are very hot. Violent storms and rains are seldom seen; and the sharp, keen north-wind serves only to purify and refresh the air.

The soil, of course, is according to the nature of the climate, and the productions of the earth more speedy in growth than in more southern countries, as the sun in the summer shines almost continually, thereby compensating for its short stay. There is a much greater variety of fruit in Sweden than in Denmark.

Though the Swedes formerly raised no wheat, they now sow sufficient for their own consumption, and the farmers find it as profitable to them as it is in other countries, though their crops

are not so plentiful. Oats is their most general crop, though they have a large produce of peas and beans. But the article they are most deficient in is grass; as few of the farmers know anything of the artificial grass, except clover, and not a twentieth part of the kingdom raise corn. The low grounds of Sweden are generally converted into pasturage, a kind of coarse meadow; and many of them are little better than bogs and marshes.

Animals.—The wild beasts of this country are the same as those of Denmark. The cattle, as in all other northern countries, are generally of a small size; nor can the breed be improved, as they naturally degenerate in cold climates. Their sheep yield but a very coarse wool, fit only to make clothes for the peasants. The horses, especially the Finnish, though small as our ponies, are hardy, strong, and sure-footed.

Fowl, both wild and tame, are good and plentiful, except sea-fowl, which feed on, and taste of fish. The orre and chader are birds peculiar to this country, as are the hierpe and snoripa. The orre resembles our black game in England, but is larger, with a webbed foot. The chader, or kader, is a remarkably fine bird, as large as a common turkey; the cock is black, the hen of an orange-colour, and not quite so large as the cock; the hen generally lays about eight or ten eggs. But the hierpe is reckoned the finest game that can be eaten; in size it is like a young pigeon; in colour, black, grey, and white. The snoripa is rather larger for the first two years, turns white in winter, and grey in summer, like the hares; afterwards it remains always white. These birds are reckoned great rarities at Stockholm, where they are sent in winter, and sold at great prices.

They have also pheasants and partridges, but not so good-flavoured as ours, and in the woods abundance of woodcocks; but the better class of people being exceedingly fond of woodcocks' eggs, encourage the boors to rob their nests, which makes them scarce in many parts of Sweden. The northern and desert parts abound with eagles, hawks, and other birds of prey. The Swedish hawks, when carried to France, have been known to revisit their native country, as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inscription on a small gold plate, signifying that he belonged to the French king.

Their lakes and rivers are stored with a variety of good fish, as salmon, perch, trout, tench, pike, and also a fish called a *streamling*, rather less than a pilchard, which are salted, barrelled up, and sent to all parts of the country. In the gulf of Bothnia they catch a quantity of seals, of which they make train-oil.

The only insect we find mentioned in the accounts of Sweden, is a singular kind of ant, a large black insect, commonly found in small round hills at the bottom of the fir-trees. The natives not only distil, but eat them, and consider them as highly palatable and pleasant. The flavour is represented as of the finest acid, like that of a lemon. In medicine, these ants are said to supply a resin, an oil, and an acid.

Vegetables.—The principal trees of Sweden are the pine and the fir. The birch grows all over the country; but it is observed, that no beeches grow beyond East Gothland, and no oaks to the north of Upland. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans, are all cultivated with success in this country. The Swedish turnip is a root of inestimable value to this people; Linnæus says the farmers had it originally from Lapland: it spread by degrees through the northern parts of the kingdom, and was found of more use than all other winter plants put together. The great property of it is resisting the sharpest and most continual frosts known in the country. Cattle are remarkably fond of them, and will thrive on them better than on any other winter plant. One of the greatest advantages of the culture of this root, is its being as good a preparation for corn, as a fallow of mere ploughing; an object of infinite importance.

Though fruit-trees are rarely to be met with to the north of Upsal, cherries, gooseberries, currants, strawberries, raspberries, and several kinds of apples and pears, ripen in the open air in the southern provinces; and even melons, by artificial culture, are brought to perfection in dry seasons. Among the pears which ripen in Sweden, the chief is the bergamot; and among the apples, that of Astrachan, which has a most agreeable flavour.

The cultivation of tobacco has succeeded beyond expectation throughout the whole country: it grows in the greatest abundance in the vicinage of the capital; and Sweden, at present, requires little importation of this commodity from foreign parts, except to have it of a superior quality to that of its own growth.

Minerals and Metals.—Sweden abounds in every species of the fossile or mineral kind, as crystals, amethysts, topazes, porphyry, lapis lazuli, agates, cornelian, a reddish stone called *violstein*, a greenish semi-pellucid stone, asbestos, coral, load-stone, touch-stone, lime-stone, slate, free-stone, beautiful petrefactions, &c. Near Nordkiöping are large quantities of excellent white marble, with beautiful green veins. Muscovy isinglass, a rhomboidal spar, white earth, quicksilver, lead-ore, ceruse, cobalt, alum, sulphur, mother-of-pearl, and fullers-earth, are also here found:

and in Finland they have pearl-fisheries of great value.

The great wealth of Sweden, however, arises from its mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron. Gold-ore has been discovered in Smaland, and pure silver is dug up at Wermeland; but the largest silver mine is near Sala. At this mine, workmen are let down in baskets to the first landing-place, which is 105 fathoms below the surface of the ground. The roof there is as high as a church, supported by vast arches of ore. Thence the descent is by ladders or baskets to the lowest mine, above 40 fathoms. They have no records so ancient as the first discovery, either of this or of the great copper mine at Falun, which must have been the work of many ages. The ore seldom yields above four per cent. and requires great pains to refine it. The water, as well as the ore, is drawn by mills, and of its produce the king has the pre-emption, paying one-fourth less than the real value.

They have also a great number of iron-mines and forges, especially in the mountainous parts of the country, where they have the convenience of water-mills to work them; and from these, besides what they keep for their own use, they export yearly to a great value. "The ore," says Mr. Wraxall, who visited one of these mines at Danmora, "is not dug, as in our mines of tin and coal, but is torn up by gunpowder. This operation is performed every day at noon, and is, beyond conception, tremendous and awful, resembling subterraneous thunder, or rather volleys of artillery discharged under ground. The stones are thrown up, by the violence of the powder, to a vast height above the surface of the earth; and the concussion is so great, as to shake the surrounding earth or rock on every side. I felt a pleasure connected with terror, as I hung over this vast and giddy hollow, which is half an English mile in circumference, and to the bottom of which the eye attempts in vain to penetrate. I ventured, however, to descend into this mine, and was let down with two men in a large deep basket, fastened by chains to a rope; and I am not ashamed to own, that when I had got some way down, and found myself suspended between heaven and earth, by a rope, and looked down into the deep and dark abyss below me, to which I could see no termination, I shuddered with apprehension, and half-repenting my curiosity; but this was only a momentary sensation, and before I had descended a hundred feet, I looked round on the scene with tolerable composure. I was near nine minutes before I reached the bottom, it being 80 fathoms, or 480 feet. The view of the mine, when I reached it, was awful and sublime in the highest degree. The light of

the day was faintly admitted into these subterraneous caverns. In many places it was lost, and flambeaux supplied its place. I saw the frame of wood, across some parts, from one side of the rock to the other, whereon the miners sat boring holes for the admission of the powder, with as much unconcern as I could have felt in an ordinary employment, though the least dizziness, or even a failure in preserving their equilibrium, must have made them lose their seat, and dashed them to pieces against the rugged surface of the rock beneath. The weather above was very warm, but here ice covered the whole surface of the ground, and I found myself surrounded with the cold of the most rigorous winter, amid darkness and caves of iron. In one of these, which was a considerable way under the rock, were eight wretches warming themselves round a charcoal fire, and eating their little scanty subsistence, produced from their miserable occupations: I say miserable, for it is little else than confinement for life in a horrid dungeon. There are no less than 1300 men here constantly employed, and their pay only three-pence English a day. These mines were first opened in 1580, and with little intermission have been working till this time."

Rivers, Lakes, &c.—Vast tracts of this country are occupied by deserts and lakes, so that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The face of the country is similar to that of its neighbours, except that it has the advantage of navigable rivers; the largest of which are, 1. the Motalastron, which issues from the Wetter lake, and being increased by 17 rivers, forms a waterfall of 16 feet, near Nordkioping, emptying itself into the Baltic; 2. the Stang, which divides East Gothland into two parts; 3. the Gothic river, which rises in the Wener lake, and falls into the North Sea near Gottenburg, forming a steep cataract in its way; 4. the Gullspang, dividing West Gothland from Wenerland; and, 5. the Dahl-Elbe, in the vale-country, the largest in Sweden.

"It might appear extraordinary to an Englishman," says M. Küttner, speaking of the river Gotha, "that the only obstacle which so long opposed the navigation of this river, was the want of a canal less than two miles in length; and indeed, in England, this difficulty would soon have been overcome. But it should be considered, in the first place, that the Swedes are not such a rich, highly-civilized, enterprising, and mechanical nation as the English; and in the second, that the ground here is such as is seldom found in the vicinity of a great river. The whole adjacent country is an immense mass of solid rock, and for the most part of the hardest kind, namely granite.

"Eight

“Eight hundred men are daily employed at this place; with the exception of about sixty, they are all soldiers, and receive eight schillings (about sixpence) each for the day's work. It is not quite five years since the works were commenced, and in two years they expect to open the canal. It is entirely a private undertaking, and was begun by a single individual. All the works previously carried on here were at the expense of the government. Mr. Chalmers of Gottenburg knew that many people considered it only as a means of making a fortune, and that the management alone cost great sums. He went to Stockholm, settled all the necessary preliminaries with the government, fixed the tolls which the canal should have a right to demand, and a general standard, according to which the proprietors of the land, or rather of the naked rocks, should be indemnified; together with many other points of a similar nature. Upon this he immediately opened a subscription in shares, as is customary in England, and in a short time received subscriptions for 765,000 rix-dollars, or about £115,000 sterling. These shares are transferable. It is, however, supposed that the canal will not require an expenditure of more than £45,000, which will again force a smile from an Englishman. Thus this canal avoids the four falls of Trolhätta, as they are denominated.”

The lakes in Sweden, which are numerous, contain also some thousands of islands. There are twenty-three lakes in East Gothland, twenty-one in Smaland, and several in the other provinces. The lake Wetter is near 100 English miles in length, and rather resembles a sea than a piece of inland water. The Wener is 84 English miles long, and 42 broad; 24 rivers empty themselves into it, and only one flows from it. Many of these lakes are navigable, and might be made much more so at a very small expense. The Mæler lake, in Upland, is 72 English miles long, full of fish, and is said to contain 1290 islands. Its banks are so beautifully diversified with trees, castles, churches, noblemen's seats, and other edifices, as to afford many beautiful prospects. Were it not for the intense cold and drifted snow, a passage over the rivers and lakes in winter would be as much more commodious for the traveller as it is for the business and intercourse of the inhabitants, who are safely conveyed over the ice in sledges, at the rate of 15 English miles an hour.

Mountains and Forests.—Sweden in general presents a pleasing diversity of romantic hills and dales; the principal mountains are found in the chain that separates it from Norway, of which that called Swucku is deemed the high-

est, and is estimated at being elevated upwards of 6000 feet above the level of the sea. This chain, as well as most of the other mountains in this country, are composed of granite, calcareous stone, and slate.

Their woods and vast forests overspread much of the country, and are, for the most part, of pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and some oak, especially in the province of Bleking, in South Gothland; the trees growing in most places so close together, and lying to rot where they fall, that the woods are scarcely passable. These afford a plentiful and cheap firing; and, being generally very straight and tall, are easily convertible into timber fit for all uses; so that the Dutch export from hence, boards and masts for their shipping, which prove as good as those of Norway. In the parts near the mines, the woods are much destroyed; but the want is so well supplied from distant places, by the convenience of rivers and water-carriages, that they have charcoal above six times as cheap as in England; though it is deemed not half so good.

Natural Curiosities.—The natural curiosities of this country consist in tremendous cataracts, and the romantic scenery of its various forests and lakes. About 50 miles from Gottenburg are the noted cataracts of Trolhätta, formed by the river Gotha, which issues from Lake Wener; and being united after several breaks, suddenly rushes, with its whole united stream into so deep a bed of water, that large pieces of timber, precipitated down it, disappear for a very considerable time before they arise again to the surface. There is another cataract on the river Dahl, about 10 miles from the town of Gefle, the capital of Gestricia. “This cataract,” says Mr. Wraxall, “is one of those objects which to be felt must be seen, and before which all language sinks unequal. A small island, or rather a rock, of half a quarter of a mile in circumference, divides the river at this place. In the winter, when one of the cataracts is frozen over, the island is accessible, but at other times it would be impossible to reach it alive. The eye takes in both falls at once, from either bank. The depth of each is about 40 feet, but one a direct perpendicular, the other oblique and shelving; the breadth of each about 90 yards. The tremendous roar of these cataracts, which, close to them, is greater far than the loudest thunder; the spray, which rises incessantly from them, and even in many parts obscures them from the eye; the agitation of the river below, for several hundred yards, before it resumes its former tranquillity; and the sides covered with tall firs, which seem to be silent spectators of it, form one

of the most picturesque and astonishing scenes to be beheld in Nature's volume; nor would I have resigned the pleasure I experienced, as I lay on the loose stones immediately below it, and was covered with the spray of its dashing billows, for the most voluptuous banquet a sovereign could bestow. Incautious fishermen are sometimes carried down the torrent, hurled on this precipice, and meet their death below.

Antiquities.—The principal antiquities of Sweden consist in ruinous castles and palaces, and Runic inscriptions. About seven miles from the city of Upsal are the remains of several mutilated stones, one of which is known, in Swedish history, as the stone of Mora, upon which the sovereigns of Sweden were annually elected, enthroned, and received the homage of their subjects. They stand in an open plain, and are covered with a brick building to preserve them. The names of the Swedish kings there enthroned are inscribed on the stones, and dated from 1276 to 1512. The stone of Mora is placed in the midst of twelve other stones, standing in a circle round it.

National Character, Manners and Customs, &c.—The Swedes are robust, hardy, and vigorous, being inured to all kinds of hardships and fatigues, which they undergo with cheerfulness; and the peasants are a heavy, plodding kind of people. Where they are not too much exposed to the weather; their complexions are good, and their hair, like all other northern nations, frequently inclined to yellow. The women are of a just proportion, have tolerable features, and many are pretty, with golden locks; those who do not live by labour are generally fair; those who do, are as tawny as the Laplanders: for here the peasants make the women take a part in all their laborious employments; they go to plough, thresh the corn, carry the water, serve the bricklayers, and carry loads, as the men do with us.

The character of the Swedes has differed greatly in different ages; nor is it very uniform. It seems difficult to conceive that the modern Swedes are descendants of those, who, under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through distant countries, and shook the foundations of the greatest empires. The intrigues of their senators drew them to take part in the war, called the seven years' war, against Prussia; yet their behaviour was spiritless, and their courage contemptible.

The inhabitants of Sweden compose the four following classes: the nobility and gentry; the clergy; the citizens and merchants; and the soldiers, seamen, and peasants.

The nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hospitable; they have

high notions of honour, and are jealous of their national interests. They have a graceful deportment, value much their own consequence, make the best appearance they can; and, to gain the respect of others, are more expensive in the number of attendants, sumptuous houses, costly apparel, and well-furnished tables, than on other less noticed occasions. They never descend to any employments in the church, law, physic, or trade; and though, to gain experience in maritime affairs, they will submit to the lowest offices abroad, yet, at home, no person of rank will accept the command of a merchant-ship.

The clergy of Sweden, who are very numerous, affect great gravity, are esteemed hospitable, and preserve a distinguished authority over the lower order of the people. The citizens and merchants plod on in a beaten tract, without ingenuity to discover, or spirit to pursue new branches of commerce, notwithstanding all the care and encouragement bestowed by the legislature. The common soldiers endure cold, hunger, long marches, and hard labour, to admiration; but they learn their duty very slowly, and are serviceable more by their obedience to command, and standing their ground, than by any forwardness to attack the enemy, or activity in executing their orders. The seamen are bold and active, and well instructed in their business. The peasants, when sober, are obsequious and respectful; but when intoxicated with strong liquors, furious and ungovernable. They live in great poverty, and rudely practise several mechanical arts, which necessity teaches them to exercise, such as making their own shoes, clothes, tools, and instruments of husbandry. They are very obliging, courteous, and remarkably hospitable to strangers.

The clothing of the Swedes is suitable to the climate. The dress of the rich, in winter, is lined with furs; that of the poor with sheepskins, with the wool on. In fashion the Swedes resemble the Germans, and other European nations. They wear in summer such stuffs as their circumstances enable them to procure; the great adorning themselves with lace and embroidery.

With respect to their manner of living, the richer sort have a profusion of dishes at their entertainments, but no taste in the arrangement or disposition of them. The table groans beneath a number of covers, which are all brought in at once, and then left to cool during a ceremonious meal of at least two hours. But the prologue to this scene is even worse. Before they sit down to dinner, the company take bread and butter, which they wash down with a glass of brandy; and this fashion prevails not only among persons
of

of condition, but extends even to the ladies as well as all the men.

The way of dividing the residence of winter and summer, as practised in England, takes place here only in part. Many of the nobility and richest of the gentry live entirely at Stockholm, scarcely ever seeing their estates. Others live entirely in the country, never seeing the capital, at least but very seldom; some, however, have houses at Stockholm for the winter season, but live in summer on their estates, having very good houses, which they ornament with gardens and plantations.

There is a theatre at Stockholm, in which, during a part of the year, are represented French comedies, and sometimes concerts and oratorios; but the times of acting are very irregular, not meeting always with encouragement enough to keep it open even in the winter; so that it has been known to be shut up for two years together. Music is one of the polite accomplishments among the ladies; it is, indeed, almost a general science in this country.

The ordinary salutation of the Swedes is bowing to each other, as in England; but the inhabitants of the northern parts take hold of your right hand, and lay it over their left, making strange faces at the same time. They are immoderately fond of spirituous liquors, and quaff their pipes after meals.

Marriages are totally governed in Sweden by the will of the parents, and founded so much upon interest, that the inclination of the parties is little regarded, nor is the nation much troubled with the extravagance of lovers. A secret match is rarely heard of, nor can the church give licence to marry, without publication of banns. The women are, in general, more eminent for chastity before marriage, than fidelity afterwards. They are very fruitful, and seldom fail of a numerous issue. Among the common people, the wife has much the worst of it, being put to all the drudgery without doors as well as within, and looks upon herself rather in the light of a servant than that of a wife. Domestic quarrels, of course, rarely happen, husbands being as apt to keep the authority in their own hands, as the wives, by nature, custom, or necessity, are inclined to be obedient. Divorces and separations scarcely ever occur, except among the lower class of people, where the innocent party is permitted to marry again. Cousin-germans cannot marry without the king's dispensation, which is more frequently granted than refused.

Travelling in Sweden is perfectly commodious to one acquainted with the usual method of procuring horses. At the different towns and villages upon the high roads, post-horses are not

always regularly stationed; but if the traveller send forward a peasant to appoint relays, at a certain stipulated place and time, his orders are punctually executed. In winter-time, the most expeditious way of travelling is in their sledges, especially in those parts of the country which abound in lakes and rivers; for these being all frozen, there are no obstacles in their way, and a traveller may more readily carry provisions with him in a sledge, than on horseback. The want of the sun is so well supplied by the brightness of the snow, and the clearness of the sky, at this time of the year, that travelling by night is as usual as in the day.

Population.—The population of Sweden is, perhaps, more accurately ascertained than in most other countries in Europe; the government having erected, in 1741, an institution, called the *Commission of Registers*, the duty of which was to collect and comprise all the registers of marriages, births, and burials, throughout the kingdom. According to the tables constructed from these registers, the number of inhabitants in 1751 was 2,229,661; in 1772 they had increased to 2,584,261.

In 1784, pursuant to the statement of Professor Olivarius, the amount of the population of the five different orders of society in Sweden was as follows:

<i>Nobility.</i>		{	Men . . .	3,869
From the age of 15 to 63	{		Women . . .	2,865
			Children . . .	1,904
Above and under those ages . . .				8,200
Domestics				27,263

<i>Clergy.</i>		{	Men . . .	5,663
From the age of 15 to 63	{		Women . . .	4,120
			Children . . .	2,775
Above and under those ages . . .				12,000
Domestics				15,980

<i>Public Officers, including the Military.</i>		{	Men . . .	23,872
From the age of 15 to 63	{		Women . . .	18,230
			Children . . .	8,823
Above and under those ages . . .				48,700
Domestics				41,809

<i>Burgesses.</i>		{	Men . . .	28,492
From the age of 15 to 63	{		Women . . .	23,563
			Children . . .	11,068
Above and under those ages . . .				60,500
Domestics				31,868

<i>Peasants.</i>		{	Men . . .	320,772
From the age of 15 to 63	{		Wom. . . .	296,664
			Childr. . .	257,213
Above and under those ages . . .				813,500
Domestics				595,388

Total 2,665,101
Allowing

Allowing the number of persons to have increased in the same proportion for the last 25 years, the population will now considerably exceed (exclusive of Finland) 2,500,000*.

Manufactures, Trade, and Commerce.—The Swedish commonalty subsist by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fishing. Their materials for traffic are the bulky and useful commodities of masts, beams, deal-boards, and other sorts of timber for shipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-ash, wooden utensils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fish. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden so late as the 16th century; for till that time they sold their own crude ore to the Hans Towns, and brought it back again manufactured into utensils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they set up some manufactories of glass, starch, tin, woollens, silk, soap, leather-dressing, and saw-mills. Bookselling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have since had sugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of sail-cloth, cotton, fustian, and other stuffs; of linen, alum, and brimstone; paper-mills, and gunpowder mills. Vast quantities of copper, brass, steel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have also foundries for cannon, forges for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire, and flatting-mills; mills also for fulling, and for boring and stamping; and of late they have built many ships for sale.

The reader will have observed that, considering the extent of territory, Sweden has but a small proportion of towns, the total number of which is estimated at 104, containing not more than one-tenth of the population. Of these 24 are called Staple Towns, where the merchants are allowed to export and import goods in their own ships; those towns that have no foreign commerce, are all called Land Towns; and a third class are termed Mine Towns, as belonging to the mine districts.

The principal exports of Sweden are iron (the staple commodity, of which upwards of 500,000 pounds are exported annually), copper, timber, pitch, tar, and train-oil. The chief imports are, sugar, coffee, tea, silk, wines, &c. &c. In 1784, the exports amounted to nearly £1,500,000, and the imports to £1,100,000, leaving a balance of £400,000 in favour of the country. Since this period, the trade of Sweden has been doubled; but the alliance formed with Russia and Denmark, in the spring of 1810, and shutting her ports against England, will, no doubt, operate

very unfavourably in crippling the trade of this kingdom.

Language, Learning, &c.—The Swedish language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and resembles that of Denmark, and, like that, is derived from the ancient Gothic. The Swedish Paternoster is as follows:—

Fader war som ast i himlom; helgat warde tit namn; tilkomme tit rike: ske tin wilje, sasom i himmelen sa ock pa jordene; gif oss i dag wart dagelige brod; och forlat oss ware skulder, sasom ock wi forlatom them oss skyldige aro; och inled oss icke i frestelse, utan frels oss ifran ondo; ty riket ar tit, och machten, och herligheten i ewighet. Amen.

The nobility and gentry are, in general, more conversant in polite literature than those of many other more flourishing states; and they have of late exhibited some noble specimens of munificence for the improvement of literature; witness their sending, at the expence of private persons, that excellent and candid natural philosopher Hasselquist into the eastern countries for discoveries, where he died. This noble spirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swedish majesty purchased, at a great expence for that country, all Hasselquist's collection of curiosities. That able civilian, statesman, and historian, Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and so was the late celebrated Linnæus, who contributed so eminently to the improvement of several branches of natural knowledge, particularly botany. The passion of the famous queen Christina for literature is well known; and she may be accounted a genius in many branches of science. Even in the midst of the late distractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, sculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a considerable height in that kingdom; and the character given by some writers, that the Swedes are a dull heavy people, fitted only for bodily exercise, is in a great measure owing to their having no opportunity of displaying their talents.

The only university is that of Upsal, founded upwards of 400 years ago, and patronized by successive monarchs, particularly by the great Gustavus Adolphus, and his daughter Queen Christina. There are near 1500 students; but, for the most part, they are extremely indigent, and lodge, five or six together, in very poor hovels. The professors in different branches of literature are about 22; of whom the principal are those of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemistry, natural philosophy, astronomy, and agriculture. Their salaries are from 70 to 100

* According to Bœttichers' tables, which are allowed to have been compiled from the most correct sources of information, the population of Sweden is given at 2,977,345, of which number Finland (now added to Russia) contained 624,600.

pounds per annum. This university, justly called by Stillingfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivaled school of natural history," is certainly the first seminary of the north for academical education, and has produced, from the time of its institution, persons eminent in every branch of science. The learned publications which have lately been given to the world by its members, sufficiently prove the flourishing state of literature in these parts; and the theses, composed by the students on their admission to their degrees, would form a very interesting collection. Many of these tracts, upon various subjects of polite literature, antiquities, languages, &c. evince the erudition and taste of the respective authors. Among the works of this sort, which have widely diffused the fame of this learned society throughout Europe, are the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, or a Collection of Theses upon Natural History, held under the celebrated Linnæus, and chiefly selected by that master. The library, according to Küttner, contains 52,000 volumes.

In the university of Upsal is preserved the famous *Codex Argenteus*, a manuscript, with silver letters, of a Gothic translation of the Gospels, by Ulphilas, a bishop of the Goths in Mœsia, who lived about 1300 years ago. It is very ancient and very imperfect; but especially curious and valuable, because it contains all that remains of the ancient Gothic language, the venerable parent of the Runic, the old Teutonic, and the Anglo-Saxon, and, consequently, of the modern English, German, Danish, Swedish, and Icelandic languages. There is also a botanical garden, founded by the celebrated Linnæus.

There are likewise twelve seminaries for the education of youth, called *gymnasia*; and in every large town is a school, maintained at the expence of the crown, in which boys generally continue till the age of 11, when they (if promising) are sent to the *gymnasia*; and thence, at 16, to the university of Upsal. There are in Sweden twelve literary societies, most of which publish memoirs of their transactions.

Government and Laws.—The form of the Swedish government has frequently varied. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the course of many centuries the crown was elective; but, after various revolutions, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became despotic: he was succeeded by his sister Ulrica, who consented to the abolition of despotism, and restored the states to their former liberties; and they, in return, associated her husband, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, with her in the government. A new model of the constitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could

scarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exercise of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the states appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all the employments of any value, ecclesiastical, civil, or military, were conferred by the king, only with the approbation of the senate. The estates were formed of deputies from the four orders; nobility, clergy, burghers, and peasants. The representatives of the nobility, which included the gentry, amounted to above 100; those of the clergy to 200; the burghers to about 150; and the peasants to 250. Each order sat in its own house, and had its own speaker, and each chose a secret committee for the dispatch of business: the states were to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January: and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain, because the king's prerogative was more bounded.

At times, when the states were not sitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and the senate, which was no other than a committee of the states, but chosen in a particular manner. The nobility, or upper house, appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; these chose three persons, who were to be presented to the king, that he might nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peasants had no vote in electing a senator. Almost all the executive power was lodged in the senate, which consisted of fourteen members, besides the chief governors of the provinces, the president of the chancery, and the grand marshal. Those senators, during the recess of the states, formed the king's privy-council; but he had no more than a casting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from different courts of judicature; but each senator was accountable to the states for his conduct in the senate. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden might, at this time, be called republican; for the king's power was not so great as that of the stadtholder.

In August, 1772, however, the whole system of the Swedish government was totally changed by the late king, in the most unexpected manner. The circumstances which attended this extraordinary revolution will be found in our history of Sweden. By that event, the Swedes, instead of having the particular defects of their constitution rectified, found their king invested with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the most despotic princes of Europe. By the new form of government, the king may assemble and separate the states whenever he pleases; he has the sole disposal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments civil and military

tary; and though he cannot openly claim a power of imposing taxes on all occasions, yet such as already subsist are to be perpetual; and in case of invasion, or pressing necessity, he may impose some taxes till the states can be assembled; but of this necessity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the states depends wholly upon his will and pleasure; and when they are assembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is easy to perceive, that a government thus constituted can be little removed from one of the most despotic kind. Yet, in order to amuse the nation with some slight appearances of a legal and limited government, in the new system, which consists of 57 articles, a senate is appointed, consisting of 17 members, comprehending the great officers of the crown, and the governor of Pomerania; and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the state, whenever the king shall demand it. If the questions agitated are of great importance, and the advice of the senators should be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they are unanimous therein, the king, it is said, shall follow their advice. But this, it may be observed, is a circumstance that can hardly ever happen, that all the members of a senate, consisting chiefly of officers of the crown, should give their opinions against the king; and in every other case the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are some other apparent restraints of the regal power in the new system of government; but they are, in fact, very inconsiderable. It is said, indeed, that the king cannot establish any new law, nor abolish any old one, without the knowledge and consent of the states; but the king of Sweden, according to the present constitution, is invested with so much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any person will venture to make an opposition to whatever he shall propose.

Sweden is not governed by the Roman or civil law, but by a code of their own, founded on the ancient Swedish laws, and published, with the sanction of the states, in 1736; it was again revised in 1781. There are four principal courts; and inferior tribunals in every principal town: a kind of assizes are likewise held, twice in every year by the judges; and a sort of trial by jury is introduced, who, when they all agree, may decide against the opinion of the judge, but, in general, they implicitly act under his direction.

The common methods of execution in Sweden are beheading and hanging: for murder, the hand of the criminal is first chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered; women, after be-

heading, instead of being quartered, are burned. No capital punishment is inflicted without the sentence being confirmed by the king; and every prisoner is at liberty to petition within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjust condemnation, and in such a case demands a revisal of the sentence; or else prays for pardon, or a mitigation of punishment. Malefactors are never put to death, except for very atrocious crimes, such as murder, house-breaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated thefts; and, to the credit of the country, executions are very seldom necessary. Crimes, many of which in other countries are considered capital, are chiefly punished by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, imprisonment, and hard labour, either for life or for a stated time. Criminals were tortured to extort confession, till 1773, when his majesty abolished this cruel and absurd practice.

Royal Titles, and Orders of Knighthood.—The king's title is King of Sweden, and of the Goths and Vandals; Duke of Schöonen, Pomerania, &c. Of knighthood there are four orders: viz. that of the *Seraphim*, or blue ribband; of the *Sword*, or yellow ribband; of the *Polar Star*, or black ribband; and of the *Vasa*, or green ribband.

Revenue, &c.—The revenue of Sweden, by the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and since with the Russians and French, has been greatly reduced; and the recent annexation of Finland to Russia, together with the loss of the whole of Swedish Pomerania, must, no doubt, have contributed still farther to reduce it. Formerly, the crown lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are said to have produced one million sterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, are extremely inconvenient, the coin being of a very large size. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of silver, valued each at 5s. 2d.; but these are very scarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have now very little specie in circulation; large pieces of copper stamped, and small bank notes, being almost their only circulating money. The present annual revenue is estimated at not more than a million sterling.

Military and Naval Forces.—No country has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes: and yet they cannot be said to have a numerous army, as their forces principally consist of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raised upon the nobility and gentry, according to their estates; and the infantry by the peasants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of soldiers, according to the number of farms it contains;

tains: every farm of 60 or £70 per annum is charged with a foot-soldier, furnishing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a year in money; or else a little wooden house is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and pasturage for a cow, and ploughs and sows land enough to supply him with bread. It may, therefore, literally be said, that every Swedish soldier has a property in the country he defends. When embodied, they are subject to military law, but otherwise to the civil law of the country. In 1791, the standing regiments amounted to 13,500 infantry, and 1000 cavalry; and the national troops, to 22,500 infantry, 7,000 cavalry, and 3,500 dragoons. Great levies were lately made to sustain the war with Russia, Denmark, and France; so that in the year 1808, the exact amount of the Swedish disciplined force was 75,000 men, exclusive of an army of about 18,000 regulars and volunteers, under Baron d'Armfeldt, on the confines of Norway.

Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ships of the line; but of late years, their ships, together with their docks, have been suffered greatly to decay; and in 1808 their navy amounted to only 12 ships of the line, not all of which were fit for sea. They have a great number of praams, gun-boats, &c.

Religion.—Christianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated amongst them by Gustavus Vasa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are surprisingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and had such an aversion to popery, that castration was the fate of every Roman Catholic priest discovered in their country; but of late years they have greatly relaxed from this bigotry; and various sects are now tolerated: even the Jews have open synagogues in Stockholm, and other principal towns. The ecclesiastical government of Sweden, is under the superintendence of the archbishop of Upsal, who has under him twelve suffragan bishops: viz. Lencoping, Skara, Westeroes, Lund, Strengthniss, Vexjoe, Borgo, Gottenburg, Calmar, Carlstadt, Hernesand, and Gothland. A consistory of the clergy of the diocese elects the archbishops, and the bishops, by presenting three to the king for his nomination. Some of the parishes are under the royal patronage; others in the gift of individuals: but many are called consistorial, and the priest is appointed by the votes of his brethren.

No clergyman has the least direction in the affairs of state; but their morals, and the sanctity of their lives, endear them so much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat,

and often ornamented. A body of ecclesiastical laws and canons direct their religious economy.

History.—The first important and duly authenticated event respecting the history of Sweden, was the introduction of the Christian religion, by Ansgarius, bishop of Bremen, who was sent thither for that purpose, by the emperor Louis the Pious, in the year 829. From that period, for a succession of years, the history is replete with civil dissensions, or wars with their neighbours of Denmark and Norway; by the latter of whom they were frequently subjected, through their own domestic broils,

Magnus Ladislaus, crowned in 1276, seems to have been the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system to increase his authority; and, to succeed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ablest princes who ever sat on the Swedish throne. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increase of the regal power: and whilst, by the steady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty spirit of the nobles, and created in the rest of the nation a respect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted; he, at the same time, by employing his authority in many respects for the public good, reconciled his subjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have opposed with the utmost violence. The successors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and several commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great confusion.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both these kingdoms. That princess, to the ordinary ambition of her sex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind which rendered her capable of conducting the greatest and most complicated designs. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, because, like Semiramis, she found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immense extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to the throne of the latter in 1364. She projected the union of Calmar, so famous in the North; by which these kingdoms were for the future to remain under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who should divide his residence between them all. Several revolutions ensued after the death of Margaret; and, at length, Christian II. the last king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was also king of Sweden,

engaged in a scheme to render himself entirely absolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this design proved the destruction of himself, and afforded an opportunity of changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to establish his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for massacring the principal nobility: this horrid design was carried into execution, Nov. 8, 1520. Of all those who could oppose the despotic purposes of Christian, no one remained in Sweden but Gustavus Vasa, a young prince, descended from the ancient kings of that country, and who had already signalized his arms against the king of Denmark. An immense price was set upon his head: the Danish soldiers were sent in pursuit of him; but by his dexterity and address, he eluded all their attempts, and escaped under the disguise of a peasant to the mountains of Dalecarlia. After undergoing innumerable dangers and fatigues; and working in the brass-mines to prevent being discovered, he was betrayed by those in whom he reposed his confidence; but at length, surmounting a thousand obstacles, he engaged the savage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to undertake his cause, to oppose and to conquer his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden by his means again acquired independence; and the ancient nobility were mostly destroyed. Gustavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his person. He was created therefore first administrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by universal consent, and with the shouts of the nation. His circumstances were much more favourable than those of any former prince who had possessed this dignity. The massacre of the nobles had freed him from those proud and haughty enemies, who had so long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no less powerful than dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the north, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious system of that country; and the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the severest penalties, which have never yet been relaxed. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy; and the change was attended with all the usual effects.

There are many circumstances in the political history of Sweden which render it peculiarly interesting at the present period: we shall therefore pursue its outlines with rather more than our usual attention; as from this æra it becomes

closely interwoven with that of the greatest nations of Europe.

Gustavus Vasa died in 1559, while his eldest son Eric was preparing to embark for England, to marry Queen Elizabeth. Under Eric, who succeeded his father Gustavus Vasa, the titles of Count and Baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miserable and causeless jealousy of his brothers forced them to take up arms; and the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. His brother John succeeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Russia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-establish the catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made strong efforts for that purpose, and even reconciled himself to the Pope, he was opposed by his brother Charles, and the scheme proved ineffectual. His son Sigismund, was chosen king of Poland, in 1587; upon which he endeavoured again to restore the Roman Catholic religion in his dominions, but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to John, was chosen administrator of Sweden; and, being a strenuous protestant, his nephew Sigismund endeavoured to drive him from his office, but without effect; till at last he and his family were excluded from the succession to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigismund, who was at the head of a great party, both in Sweden and Russia, was turbulent, which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden; but their conduct was checked by the great Gustavus Adolphus, heir apparent to the crown of Sweden, though then a minor. On the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the states, though then only in his 18th year. Gustavus, soon after his accession, found himself, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Russians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite disadvantages, all which he surmounted. He had nearly rendered himself sovereign of Russia. In 1617 he made a peace, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with which he likewise received a sum of money.

The ideas of Gustavus began now to extend. He had seen much military service, and he was assisted by the counsels of La Gardie, one of the best generals and wisest statesmen of his age. His troops had become the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe. The princes of the house of Austria were soon jealous of his enterprising spirit, and supported his ancient implacable enemy Sigismund, whom he defeated. In

1627 he formed the siege of Dantzic, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vistula, added so much to his military character, that the Protestant princes placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the house of Austria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the most rapid and wonderful successes. After taking Riga, and overrunning Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania; drove the Germans out of Mecklenburg; defeated the famous Count Tilly, the Austrian general, who, till then, was thought invincible, and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenstein, another Austrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to the command against Gustavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen, in 1632, after gaining a victory, which, had he survived, would probably have put a period to the Austrian greatness.

The amazing abilities of Gustavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared so fully as after his death. He left behind him a set of generals trained by himself, who maintained the glory of the Swedish army with most astonishing valour and success. The names of Duke Bernard, Bannier, Torstenson, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, will long live in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what course Gustavus would have pursued, had his life been prolonged, and his successes continued; but there is the strongest reason to believe, that he had in view somewhat more than the relief of the Protestants, and the restoration of the Palatinate family. His chancellor, Oxenstiern, was as consummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Christina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with such success, that she in a manner dictated the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, which gave a new system to the affairs of Europe.

Christina was but six years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed romantic, turn. She invited to her court Descartes, Salmasius, and other learned men, to whom she was not, however, extremely liberal. She expressed a respect for Grotius; and she was an excellent judge of the polite arts, but illiberal, and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the same time discharged all the duties of her high station; and though her generals were basely betrayed by France, she continued to support the honour of her crown. Being resolved not to marry, she resigned her

crown to her cousin Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great successes against the Poles: he drove their king, John Casimir, into Silesia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which they soon afterwards broke. His progress upon the ice against Denmark is well known; and he died of a fever in 1660. His son and successor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it necessary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the island of Bornholm, and Drontheim in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the same time with Russia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very respectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came of age, he received a subsidy from the French king Louis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland. He afterwards joined with France against the house of Austria; but being defeated in Germany at Felem Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of Swedish Pomerania; the bishop of Munster over-ran Bremen and Verden: and the Danes took Wismar, and several places in Schönen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain, which followed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had lost, except some places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's sister; but made a base use of the tranquillity he had regained, by employing his army to enslave his people. The states lost all their power, and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to lose his head and his right hand, for the boldness of his remonstrance in favour of his countrymen; but he saved himself by flight, and Charles became so powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryswick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697; and was succeeded by his minor son, the famous Charles XII. between whom and the present king there is, almost in every respect, a very striking coincidence. The history of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen; but it was set aside for an earlier date by the management of Count Piper, who became in consequence his first minister. Soon after his accession, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muscovy, formed a powerful confederacy against him, being

being encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He entered into a war with them all; and besieging Copenhagen, dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Danish majesty, by which the duke of Holstein was re-established in his dominions. The czar Peter was at that time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had besieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000; but such was his impatience, that he advanced, at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Russians, and raised the siege. Such were his successes, and so numerous his prisoners, that the Russians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike achievements equalled those of Gustavus Adolphus. He dethroned Augustus, king of Poland, but stained all his laurels by putting the brave Count Patkul to a death equally cruel and ignominious. He raised Stanislaus to the crown of Poland in 1705; and his name carried with it such terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe, and among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of Queen Anne, amidst the full career of her successes against France. His stubbornness and implacable disposition, however, were such, that he cannot be considered in a better light than that of an illustrious madman; for he lost in the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himself with 300 Swedes against 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worse than frantic. The Turks found it, however, convenient for their affairs to set him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madness; and after his return to his dominions, he prosecuted his revenge against Denmark, till he was killed, as we have already stated, at the siege of Fredericshall, in Norway, in 1718, when he was no more than 36 years of age.

Charles XII. was succeeded by his sister, the Princess Ulrica Eleanor, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse, who made peace with Great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes, then, to prevent farther losses by the progress of the Russian, the Danish, the Saxon, and other arms, made many sacrifices to obtain peace from those powers. Their Swedish majesties having no children, it was necessary to settle the succession; especially as the duke of Holstein was descended from the queen's eldest sister, and was at the same time the presumptive heir to the empire of Russia. Four competitors

appeared; the duke of Holstein Gottorp, Prince Frederic of Hesse Cassel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux Ponts. The duke of Holstein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Russia. The czarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, excepting a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, the bishop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince, and successor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty. This peace was so firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Danish majesty thought proper to drop all his resentment, and forget the indignity done to his son. The successor of this prince, Adolphus Frederic, married the Princess Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia, and entered into the possession of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, but much harassed by the contending Swedish factions, and found his situation extremely troublesome, in consequence of the restraints and oppositions which he met with from the senate. He passed the greatest part of his reign very disagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February, 1771, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus III. the late king, who possessed abilities greatly superior to those of his father.

Gustavus was about 25 years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden; his understanding had been much cultivated; he had an insinuating address, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, whence he wrote in the most gracious terms to the senate, repeatedly assuring them that he designed to govern according to the laws. In consequence of the death of his predecessor, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to settle the form of the coronation oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majesty solemnly signed and swore to observe twenty-four articles relative to his future administration of government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following:—"The king promises before God to support the government of the kingdom, as now established; to maintain the rights and liberties of the states, the liberty and security of all his subjects, and to reign with gentleness and equity, according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was established in the year 1720, and conformably to the

the present act of capitulation. In consequence of the declaration of the states, the king will regard any person who shall openly or clandestinely endeavour to introduce absolute sovereignty, as an enemy to the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, since every person must take an oath to this purpose before he can receive possession of any employment. Concerning the affairs of the cabinet and the senate, the king promises to follow the regulations of the year 1720 upon that head, according to which they are to be directed always by a majority of votes, and he engages never to act without, and much less against, their advice. To the end that the council of state may be so much the more convinced of the inviolable designs of his majesty, and of his sincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely disengaged from their oath of fidelity, in case that he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation oath, and to this capitulation. And lastly, the king threatens any person with his highest displeasure who shall be so inconsiderate as to propose to him a greater degree of power and splendour than is marked out in this act of capitulation; and his majesty desires only to secure the affections of his faithful subjects, and to be their powerful defender against any attempts which may be made upon their lawful liberties."

Scarcely, however, had the king taken these solemn oaths to rule according to the then established form of government, and accepted the crown upon these conditions, before he formed a plan to govern according to his own inclinations, regarding these oaths only as matters of ceremony. He made use of every art, the most profound dissimulation, and the utmost dexterity and address, in order to render this hazardous enterprise successful. On his first arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increase his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who presented themselves. Neither rank, fortune, nor interest, were necessary to obtain access to him: it was sufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cause of complaint to lay before him. He listened to the meanest of his subjects with affability, and entered into the minutest details that concerned them: he informed himself of their private affairs, and seemed to interest himself in their happiness. This conduct caused him to be considered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolize him. In the mean time there happened some contentions between the different orders of the Swedish states; and no methods were left untried to foment their jealousies. Emissaries were likewise planted in every part of the kingdom, for the

purpose of sowing discontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them disaffected to the established government, and of exciting them to an insurrection. At length, when the king found his scheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers into his interest, on the 19th of August, 1772, he totally overturned the Swedish constitution of government. In less than an hour he made himself master of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber in which the senate were assembled, and made all the members of it prisoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden of the transaction in which the king was engaged, till the scheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arsenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. All communication with the country was cut off, no one without a passport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The senators were confined in separate apartments of the palace; and many others who were supposed to be zealously attached to the liberties of Sweden were put under arrest. The remainder of the day the king employed in visiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magistrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were also tendered to the public in general, to whom he addressed a speech, which he concluded by declaring that his only intention was to restore tranquillity to his native country, by suppressing licentiousness, overturning the aristocratic form of government, reviving the old Swedish liberty, and restoring the ancient laws of Sweden, such as they were before 1680. Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town to proclaim an assembly of the states for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat; that if any member of the diet should absent himself, he would be considered and treated as a traitor to his country.

A large detachment of guards were ordered, on the morning of the 21st of August, to take possession of the square where the house of nobles stands. The palace was invested on all sides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court facing the hall where the states were to be assembled. The several orders of the states were here compelled to assemble by the king's command; and these military preparations were made in order to assist their deliberations. The king being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers,

after having addressed a speech to the states, ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the states for their acceptance. As they were surrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speaker of the other orders, signed the form of government; and the states took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himself. This extraordinary transaction was concluded in a manner equally singular: the king drew a book of psalms from his pocket, and, taking off his crown, began to sing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the assembly. He afterwards gave them to understand, that he intended, in six years time, again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodshed, in which the Swedes surrendered that constitution which their forefathers had bequeathed to them, after the death of Charles XII. as a bulwark against any despotic attempts of their future monarchs.

Gustavus the Third, however, exercised with some degree of moderation the exorbitant power which he had thus assumed; and at an assembly of the states in 1786, after many points were referred to them by the king, and debated with great freedom, he dismissed them with condescension and gentleness, at the same time remitting a tenth part of the subsidy which they had granted him.

On the 12th of July, 1788, hostilities commenced on the frontiers of Finland, between a body of Russian light troops, and a detachment of the Swedes posted on the bridge of Pomala-sund. After various engagements both by land and sea, in which Gustavus displayed the greatest abilities, an agreement for establishing an everlasting peace, and fixing the frontiers of Russia as they were before the war broke out, was signed at Werela, on the river Kymene, between the plenipotentiaries of the empress of Russia and the king of Sweden.

The king having summoned a diet to meet at Gefle, a solitary place on the Bothnic Gulf, near 70 miles from Stockholm, it was imagined by some that this diet might assert the national freedom against a despotic monarch; but Gustavus had guarded against any such design, by his choice of the spot, and surrounding it with his mercenary troops. He found some difficulty in gaining his only intention, that of raising money, and was obliged to be satisfied with a part of his demand.

The king, on the diet being dissolved, returned to Stockholm, where, at a masquerade in the opera-house, on the night of the 16th of March,

1792, he was shot with a pistol by an assassin, named Ankerstroem, in consequence of a conspiracy among some of the discontented nobles; and, having survived in great pain till the 29th of that month, he expired in the 45th year of his age.

The reflection of dying ingloriously by the hand of a vile assassin, is said to have embittered the last moments of the king's life. He shewed the same noble and brave spirit on his death-bed, as he had done before his enemies during his life-time. He retained all his mental faculties to the last, which enabled him so well to arrange the future government of his country.

The wounds at first indicated the most promising appearance of recovery, and the slugs were all extracted; but some rusty pieces of iron had penetrated so far into the body as to render any surgical operation immediate death. The presence of mind shewn by Gustavus during his illness was very great. While he waited for the arrival of his surgeons, in an apartment adjoining to the saloon of the opera-house, several of the foreign ministers presented themselves, to whom he said, "I have given orders, gentlemen, that the gates of the city shall be shut. You will therefore not take it ill, if you should be unable to send couriers to your courts until after three days. Your advices will then be more certain, since it will be probably known whether I can survive or not." His conversation then related to the effects which the accident might produce in Europe; and the love of fame, which was always his predominant passion, was perceptible in his remarks.

On ascertaining that he was not likely to survive, he settled all his affairs with the greatest composure imaginable. He sent for his son, the prince-royal, and addressed a speech to him on the nature of good government, in a manner so truly affecting, that all who were present shed tears. At eight o'clock, on the morning of his death, he received the sacrament. The queen had taken leave of him the evening before; and at half-past ten, he died in great agonies.

The prince-royal, being fourteen years of age, was immediately (March 29, 1792) proclaimed king, by the name of Gustavus Adolphus IV.; and the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, and brother to the late king, in compliance with his majesty's will, was declared sole regent, and guardian of the young sovereign, till he should attain his majority, which was fixed at the age of eighteen.

In 1796, Gustavus assumed the reins of government, and soon began to evince that greatness of mind and firmness of character that has astonished all Europe. The primary object of his attention was the finances, which were in a miserable

misérable situation, from the munificence of his father, who was fond of expence, and had engaged in many undertakings far beyond the ability of a country so poor as Sweden. Added to this, his injudicious, and extremely unfortunate, war with Russia, exhausted the exchequer, and involved the country in debt. To remedy these evils was the first attempt of the young king, who, besides exercising a strict economy, endeavoured to cultivate peace with his neighbours; he took no share in the continental wars occasioned by the French Revolution; nor was it till the year 1801, that any circumstance occurred in the history of Sweden, worthy the notice of the historian, at which period he joined the Northern Confederacy, formed between the powers of Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, against the commerce of England. Opportunity did not offer for Gustavus to take an active part in the confederacy; but when he received information from Sir Hyde Parker, of the armistice concluded between the courts of London and Copenhagen, and was required to give an explicit answer, relative to his intention of adhering to, or abandoning, the hostile measures he had taken, in conjunction with the two other northern powers, he returned for answer, that he would not fail to fulfil the engagements entered into with his allies, but that he would listen to any equitable proposals that might be made by deputies authorized to regulate the matter in dispute, which was soon after amicably adjusted.

The ambitious designs and haughty conduct of the French government, for a considerable time subsequent to the renewal of the war between that country and England, had been viewed with great jealousy by the great powers in the north of Europe, till at length, after considerable deliberation, a coalition was formed between the courts of Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, in 1807, against France. The result of this attempt to rescue Europe from the grasp of an usurper, is too well known to need repetition here, except as to the conduct evinced by Gustavus Adolphus, who entered warmly into the coalition, and published a spirited manifesto, in which he severely animadverted upon the general conduct of the French emperor, which is said to have given that personage great offence. After the unfortunate battle of Jena, peace was concluded between all the contending nations except Sweden, whose monarch proudly disdained every overture for that purpose; the result of which was the loss of all Pomerania and the island of Rugen: still, however, he continued firm to his principles, resolutely determining rather to perish in the contest than submit to the

terms proposed to him by Bonaparte. After the termination of the war above mentioned, a sudden change of conduct was manifested by the emperor of Russia, who, from being an avowed enemy, suddenly became an ally of the French government, and has ever since acted under its influence.

Actuated, no doubt, by a zeal resulting from the motives which induced him to form this alliance, the emperor Alexander soon began to manifest a spirit of hostility towards Sweden; to which, no doubt, he was instigated by the turbulent spirit of Bonaparte, who, besides his personal pique against Gustavus, had publicly declared, that all the powers of Europe must either enter into an alliance with, or declare their enmity to his government, as no neutrals would hereafter be suffered.

War being declared between Russia and Sweden in the spring of 1808, a Russian army entered Finland in March, where, meeting with little opposition, it committed great devastation. On the 27th of April, a battle took place between the two armies, which terminated in favour of the Swedes: but this was only a partial gleam of success; the Russians recovering during the summer, overran nearly all the province, and at the close of the campaign were in possession of Wasa, Carlby, and most of the other towns on the Bothnian Gulf.

The court of Denmark, being, like that of Petersburg, under the influence of France, had, about the same time, declared war against Sweden, whose troops at first made a successful entrance into Norway, but ultimately were obliged to retreat. In order to assist Gustavus, the British government sent a considerable body of troops, under the command of Sir John Moore, to his assistance; but, owing to a misunderstanding between that general and the Swedish monarch, they returned home without effecting any thing.

During the succeeding winter, the king of Sweden continued to send reinforcements to his armies; but no advantage of any importance was gained: he still, however, continued obstinately bent upon the prosecution of the war, notwithstanding that, in the spring of 1809, the Russians were fast approaching Tornea, the capture of which would have introduced them into the heart of Sweden. This conduct, at length, raised great discontent among the people; and the army serving against Norway revolted.

On the 9th of March, the king being informed of the insurrection, and of the advance of the insurgents, dispatched a courier to the western army, with orders to remove Baron Cederstrom from the command. This courier was, however, prevented

prevented from proceeding by Major-General Adlercreutz, and the king was told that all was quiet. His majesty, in a day or two after, discovered that this report was fallacious, and determined immediately to proceed against the insurgents in person, at the head of his guards. On the 13th, in the morning, his majesty left his apartment to go down to the parade in front of the palace, with the intention of announcing this determination to the guards, and calling upon them to follow him; but while he was descending the great staircase, General Adlercreutz, Colonel Milin, and some others, advanced to meet him, as if through compliment, and having surrounded him closely, General Adlercreutz addressed him, and said, that as all possible means had been tried in vain to induce him to adopt councils consistent with the exigencies of the times, it had become necessary to have recourse to constraint. The king, surprised, but not deprived of his usual courage, said coolly, "What do you mean? Am I arrested?" All around him said, "Yes." The king upon this drew his sword, and attempted to run Adlercreutz through the body, but was prevented. One of the conspirators coming behind, seized his majesty round the body, while the others rushed in on every side, overpowered and disarmed him. In effecting this, however, the foremost, Count Snoilsky, received a wound in his hand from his majesty's sword. The king, though overwhelmed by force, still preserved the firmness of his character unaltered, declaring that it was in vain to attempt to controul him by violence, and that his sentiments and principles would ever remain the same. In the night his majesty was conveyed to the castle of Drottningholm.

The Duke of Sudermania was appointed regent; and a meeting of the states of the kingdom was convened, which met at Stockholm on the 9th of May, when a document was produced by the prince regent, called the Act of Abdication, said to have been voluntarily made by the late king on the 29th of March; after which, at the representation of one of the nobles, who in a pathetic manner addressed the assembly, they renounced all allegiance and obedience to the person and authority of Gustavus IV.; and declared him and his issue, now, and for ever, deprived of the crown and government of Sweden. Upon this the regent addressed the diet, assuring them, that until a successor was appointed, he would govern impartially, according to the existing laws. After considerable deliberation, at length, (on the 6th of June,) he was proclaimed king by the unanimous voice of the states and people, with the title of Charles XIII. On the 27th he was crowned king; and on the 1st of July the oath of allegiance was taken in the great square, near the statue of Gustavus III. by the representatives of the states.

A short time previous to this, proposals for peace were made to the Russian government; but they were uniformly rejected, upon the ground that Sweden was without an executive government. The accession of Charles removed these obstructions, and soon afterwards a treaty of peace was concluded, by which Sweden agreed to give up to Russia the whole of Finland, together with all the islands on its coast in the Baltic, which have since been formally annexed to Russia, and now compose a part of that extensive empire.

CHAP. V.

LAPLAND.

Name—Climate and Seasons—Soil and Vegetable Produce—Animals—Metals and Minerals—Rivers, Lakes, and Mountains—Persons and Dispositions of the Natives—Their Habitations, &c.—Manners and Customs—Population—Commerce, &c.—Language—Religion—Government, Laws, &c. &c.

HAVING, in our account of Denmark and Sweden, referred to the divisions of this country pertaining to each, it will be only necessary here to present the reader with a general outline of what could not with propriety be introduced in our statement of those countries.

Name.—The origin of the name of this country is very uncertain; and a great variety of opinions have prevailed among antiquarians respecting it. The most generally received opinion is, that it was originally derived from its primitive inhabitants, who are said to have been driven into these northern regions from Sweden and Norway, by a great irruption of Fins into those countries: here they are said to have been termed *Laps*, or *Lappes*, which, in their language, signifies *exiles*; and hence the country was called *Lapland*.

Climate and Seasons.—The situation of this country is so near the pole, that in some parts, for three months together, during the summer, the sun never sets; and, during the winter, it never rises for the same space of time; at which season it is not unusual for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in some thermometers, spirits of wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of snow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw sometimes takes place; and then the frost that succeeds, presents the Laplander with a smooth level of ice over which he travels with a rein-deer in a sledge with inconceivable swiftness. The heats of summer are excessive for a short time; and the cataracts which dash from the mountains often present to the eye the most picturesque appearance. Though, in the

summer, the sun does not set, yet it skirts the horizon only, and its rays only slide along the ground: so, in the winter, it is not much below the horizon; of course, there is a constant twilight, sufficient for people to pursue their work. Indeed, the further the sun is removed from mankind, the more they enjoy the benefit of the moon: for, rising higher than it does with us, it affords a more considerable light; so that what other nations perform in the day-time, is by the Laplanders done by moonlight; nay, when the moon does not shine, the glittering of the stars, in a pure and serene sky, gives more light than with us; and this, augmented by the glare of the snow, enables them to see sufficiently to do almost any business they have to transact abroad. The air of Lapland is generally pure and clear, and consequently not unwholesome; but the weather is very changeable, owing to the sudden high winds. The spring and autumn seasons are unknown, there being but a short interval between the cold of winter and the heat of summer; and it appears almost a miracle to such as are unacquainted with these parts, to see the fields clothed with green herbs and grass, which a few weeks before were enveloped in snow. Nature seems so sensible of the shortness of the summer here, that she brings things to perfection with a speed incredible but to those who have seen it.

Soil and Vegetable Productions.—The soil is neither fertile nor barren, but between both; though it is full of flints and small rocks, and, of course, very rough and uneven. In the more southern parts of Lapland, the ground is much better calculated for herbage than in the northern parts. In the neighbourhood of the Gulf of Bothnia, they have a variety of vegetables in their gardens, such as colewort, turnips, parsnips, radishes, &c. Here are pine-trees, fir, juniper, birch, the service-tree, willow, ash, alder, and dog-tree. Lapland produces no oak, beech, or hazel; nor any fruit-trees, such as our apple, pear, or cherry trees: they have currants, and a variety of palatable berries, some peculiar to the climate,

mate, and many useful herbs. Vast quantities of angelica grow every where wild, on short, but thick stalks; and they have some herbs not met with in any other country, several different mosses, and a grass, which is so soft and warm that the Laplanders put it into their shoes and gloves, to defend them against the rigour of the cold.

Animals.—There are wild in Lapland, bears, rein-deers, wolves, gluttons, beavers, otters, foxes, martins, ermines, squirrels, and hares. The wolves are white, and great enemies to the tame rein-deer: it is remarkable that a wolf will never attack a rein-deer if it be tied to a stake; but, if at liberty, he often becomes their prey. It is supposed that the timidity of the wolf on such occasions arises from his fear of a snare.

The animal called the glutton is very numerous here. Its head is rounder than, and its tail long and sharp like, the wolf's; and its body larger, but feet shorter, than the otter's. Its skin is very black and bright, and looks like black-flowered damask: it is valued almost as much as a sable skin, though the hair is not so soft, nor fine. It is an amphibious animal, dwelling partly in the water, like an otter: indeed, some have taken it for a species of the otter, but it most resembles our turnspit dog. It is a gluttonous animal, nothing coming amiss to it, but it lives chiefly on water-fowl. There is a great variety of different coloured foxes in Lapland; but the black ones are the finest and rarest; and their skins are worn on the caps of persons of the first rank in Russia.

Martens also are numerous; and not any country affords finer skins of this animal. Its food is birds and squirrels. By the help of its claws it will climb the trees in the night, and catch the squirrels, who have no chance of escaping but by running up, upon the smaller boughs, to the top of the trees, where the marten, by its weight, cannot follow them. The birds they catch whilst at roost. The zibelin, a creature resembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its skin, whether black or white, is highly esteemed. The number of squirrels throughout Lapland is incredible; and they have, like the hares of Greenland, the peculiar property of changing their colour twice a year: in summer they are red; in winter, grey.

The ermine is the same as the white weasel, with the tip of its tail black: it also catches mice, as weasels do. The mice are mountain-mice, and differ from ours, by having short tails, and standing hair, of a red and black colour mixed. They never enter any houses or huts, but keep among the shrubs and brambles. These mice

are not only food for the ermine and fox, but also for the rein-deer.

Lapland produces neither horses, asses, oxen, sheep, nor goats. Indeed, horses would be useless; of course, they set no value on them: but the natives sometimes purchase oxen, sheep, and goats, in Norway, for their flesh and skins. The only tame animal, proper to Lapland, is the rein-deer, and probably the most useful of any in the creation. It resembles the stag, only is larger, and droops its head, and its horns project forward. The Laplanders call it *herki*, or *puatze*. When the rein-deer walks, the joints of its feet make a noise like the clashing of flints, or cracking of nuts. In summer it feeds upon grass and leaves, and in winter upon moss, which it has a wonderful sagacity in discovering; and, when found, it scrapes away the snow that covers it with its feet. Such as are designed for use, the Laplanders castrate at a year old. The females, like our ewes, furnish them with milk and cheese; and it is observable, that such as have young ones (though the fawns suck them before they are milked) will give more milk than those who have not young to suckle. Their milk is as rich as cream, and very nourishing. As these animals are of great use, they are careful to preserve them from wild beasts, or straying into danger; for which purpose, the master and mistress, as also the children and servants, are commonly near at hand whilst they are feeding. Scanty as their provision is in winter, the rein-deer thrive best at this season of the year, for in summer they are very meagre. They swim with their bodies half above the water with such incredible force and swiftness, across the largest rivers, that a boat with oars is scarcely able to keep up with them. This animal seldom lives beyond the 13th year.

The chief part of a Laplander's riches consists in the number of rein-deer he possesses: for, besides the food it furnishes, whether fresh or dried, they are used as horses in travelling, their skins form excellent clothing, both for the bed and body; their milk and cheese are pleasant and nutritive; and their intestines and tendons are converted into thread and cordage. But, with these excellent qualities, they are not without their inconveniences; for, besides the difficulty of keeping them from straggling, they frequently grow restive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their surprising speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 100 miles a day) seems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in which he is confined, in the sledge they travel in. The rein-deer thus supply the place of horses, sheep,

sheep, and cows, to which other nations are accustomed. It is the animal to which the Laplanders apply all their care, except their dogs, which they train up to hunting, and guarding their huts and cattle; and which they sell, commonly, to one another, for one, two, or three crowns a-piece.

Lapland abounds in swans, ducks, geese, lapwings, snipes, and all sorts of water-fowl, besides heath-cocks, stock-doves, wood-cocks, and partridges; and, of poultry, they have cocks, hens, and turkies, of all kinds. The lapwing here seems to be a bird of passage, as it comes in this country every spring to breed. There is a kind of snipe peculiar to this country, called by the natives *kniper*; black on the head, back, and wings, the breast and belly white, with a long red bill, set with teeth, with short, red, webbed feet, like those of a duck. Their partridges are white here in winter, and grey in summer; and differ from our partridges in this, that they have feet like hares, covered with wool instead of feathers, from whence they are called *lagapedes*. Besides these useful birds, in the mountains they have eagles, which will sometimes kill the young reindeer.

They have incredible quantities of all kinds of fish; scarcely any part of Europe abounds so much with salmon as the Bothnian sea. From their mountains descend vast rivers of fresh water, in which salmon are seen to swim against the stream in shoals; 1300 barrels of salmon have been exported from Tornea in one year; and whole ship-loads of dried pikes, the produce of the lakes, are annually transported into Germany.

This country produces few weazels, and not any snakes; neither are insects very frequent here: fleas are not known, but they abound in lice, as the Laplanders wear no linen, and change their clothes very seldom. They louse themselves in summer, and in the winter they expose their clothes to the cold air, which kills them. In the marshy grounds of the north they are pestered with large gnats, which make an odious noise when they sting. The reindeer run from them to the tops of the mountains; and the natives defend themselves against them by keeping in their huts a continual smoke. When asleep, they cover their heads and bodies with a blanket; and when abroad they cover themselves with skins and a cloth cap, which they can pull occasionally over their faces; but some besmear their faces with rosin, or pitch, as a farther defence.

Metals and Minerals.—Silver and gold mines, as well as those of iron, copper, and lead, have been discovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage. Beautiful crystals are found here, as

are some amethysts and topazes; also various sorts of mineral stones, surprisingly polished by nature: valuable pearls have likewise been sometimes found in the rivers, but never in the seas.

Rivers, Lakes, and Mountains.—The principal rivers of Lapland are the Tornea, the Tana, and the Alten. The Tornea issues out of a lake of the same name; and, after running upwards of 300 miles, falls into the gulf of Bothnia at the town of the same name; in summer it is navigable for a considerable distance inland. The Tana and Alten fall into the Frozen Ocean. The lakes of this country are very numerous, as well as the mountains; but little is known of them except the names.

Persons and Dispositions of the Natives.—The Laplanders in general are low of stature; seldom more than four feet and a half in height. The women are rather handsome, their complexion being a mixture of white and red; but the men are swarthy, probably from the lowness of the huts and tents, and their sitting constantly in the smoke may contribute not a little to the dinginess of their hue. They are extremely thin, a fat man being seldom seen among them. They have very thick, large heads, prominent foreheads, short and flat noses, wide mouths, and are bleary-eyed. Their hair is short, straight, hard, and thin; and universally black in both sexes. The beards of the men scarcely cover their chins. Their breasts are broad, their waist rather slender; but the men in general are active and swift of foot. In disposition they are timid beyond expression, flying at the very sight of a stranger, or at the approach of a ship to the shore, from a conception that they come to rob them, or carry them into slavery. From this inherent timidity in the Laplanders, the Swedes never raise any of their soldiers from among them; though every other part of that kingdom furnishes a certain number; but it is remarkable that, timid as they are, they will live and pass whole nights alone, in the most dreary forests, without any appearance of fear; and are not in the least terrified at those visions, or spectres, which they conceive appear to them on the tops of the highest mountains. They have the greatest attachment to their native country, so much that they could not live long out of it; besides, it has been found, by experience, that not only a more southern climate, but the diet of the Swedes, particularly salt and bread, are as incompatible with the constitution of a Laplander, as their dried fish and raw flesh (the customary food of these northern regions) would be with a Swede.

They are naturally suspicious; and the consequence

quence of this temper is, a proneness to do all sorts of mischief privately, rather than not avoid the danger they apprehend from others. Hence they endeavour to hurt one another, upon the slightest occasions. A little matter enrages them; and when they are enraged, they are as ungo vernable and blood-thirsty as wild beasts.

The Laplanders are avaricious; and, what is almost a paradox, at the same time lazy. Though there are many spacious places in Lapland, sufficiently fertile, they will leave them uncultivated from mere idleness. Thus they pass their lives, choosing to overcome the want of convenient sustenance by patience, rather than by labour. Neither do they like to bestow much pains in dressing their food; nor do they ever go a hunting or fishing unless necessity compels them. No sooner have they dined than they lie down to sleep: this indolence of disposition may probably give rise to another bad quality they possess; that is, of neglecting and ill-treating their parents when old and sick. The Danish Laplanders, says a French traveller, are stupid, brutal, and lascivious, especially the women, who will prostitute themselves to all comers, if they can do it unknown to their husbands. The Swedish Laplanders have two other bad qualities; those of drunkenness and swearing: in times of the first they are sure to quarrel, and often cut one another's faces with knives; and, in their oaths, they make use of the most dreadful imprecations. On the other hand, thefts are never known among them, every one enjoying his own in quiet, without the least danger of being robbed; for though they will over-reach one another in their dealings, they abhor the thought of stealing. The Laplanders are charitable, a character almost incompatible with avarice; they are ready to assist the poor with their own reindeer, either by giving them one, or lending them more, for a whole summer. They are also obliging and hospitable to strangers, receiving them with great kindness, and being ready to do them all the good offices in their power: neither do they want ingenuity, making all their tools and household furniture themselves. They make also their own clothes and shoes, together with all their instruments of hunting, fowling, and fishing.

Although the Laplanders undergo great hardships, they enjoy a great share of health. They scarcely know those epidemical distempers which sometimes afflict whole countries; being never afflicted with the plague, or inflammatory fevers. The only general disorder amongst them is sore eyes, which is often the forerunner of blindness, attributed to their constantly sitting in smoky huts. The mountaineers are often blind, ow-

ing to the continual glare of the snow on the mountain-sides. They are sometimes afflicted with pleurisy, inflammations of the lungs, pains in the back, and giddiness in the head; but they are strangers to physicians, and the use of those medicines with which we are acquainted. They live frequently to a great age, 80, 90, and 100 years, and are able at that time of life to traverse the highest mountains and most impenetrable forests.

The Laplanders use no kind of linen in their clothing. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skin, pointed and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and open at the breast. Over this they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves, the skirts of which reach down to the knees, and which is fastened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for making fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the close coat, of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. On their heads they wear a cap, which the better sort cover with some skin; in shape they resemble our night-caps; are made of some coloured cloth, or of hare-fur, twisted and knit, like our stockings; sometimes they are made of the *loom-bird* skin, with the feathers on. In Danish Lapland this cap resembles a seaman's bonnet, but made of rein-deer skin, with the hair outwards, and bordered with white or grey fox-skin. They wear gloves like ours: their shoes are of a peculiar make, made of rein-deer skin, with the hair on, and all of one piece, except that they are sewed together at the bottom, on which they tread; so that the hair of the one part lies forwards, that of the other backwards; this is contrived to prevent their slipping. They put their feet into a hole in the top, the toe is pointed and bends upwards, and the seams are strengthened with some narrow pieces of red cloth. They wear them on their bare feet, and tie them on with leather strings, wound three or four times round their ancles; and that they may sit close to the feet, they stuff them with hay. The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with brass wire. Their close coat has a collar, which comes up somewhat higher than that of the men. Besides these, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, which

which they sometimes hang chains of silver, which pass two or three times round the neck. They are often dressed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear also caps fitted to the shape of the head; and as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of brass wire, or at least with list of different colours.

The women's clothes in Danish Lapland are made either of coarse cloth, or rein-deer skins, with the hair outwards; their stockings are of the same; their shoes of fish-skin, with the scales on, and resemble the wooden shoes of France, having nothing to fasten them on. Their coifs are like those of the Norwegian women: their hair is twisted up into two braids, or tresses, one of which hangs down on one shoulder, and one on the other. Their coif is made of coarse canvas, and all their linen is of the same kind; some of them wear a ruff, eight fingers broad, which they tie behind them, as gypsies do. In Russian Lapland, the women embroider their own and their husbands' clothes on the edges with tinsel thread, which they draw between their teeth, as fine as wire-drawers do their threads of gold and silver with a drawing-iron.

Habitations, &c.—The Mountain-Laplanders build their huts but slightly, because they return but once a year, and on quitting the place destroy them; but other Laplanders make their's more durable, as they leave them standing. The first erect them in the following manner:—They fix four posts at as many corners, on the tops of which they place three cross-beams, so that there shall be one on each side, and one behind, but none across the tops of the two foremost poles. On these cross-beams they set up six long poles, or rafters, leaning with their tops against each other, to form an angular roof, which they cover with a thick woollen cloth; the more opulent cover this again with linen. The Wood-Laplanders make their huts either of boards, or six posts meeting at the top, in the form of a cone, the bottom of which is a sexagon, covered with branches of fir, the bark of fir, or turf. To this hut they have a door before and behind: the fore-door is the common entrance, but the back-door is sacred to the men; through this they bring in the provision of the day, which they catch in hunting; and here they perform their sacrifices to their god *Thor*. The women are forbidden to go out through this door, because the men, who always pass this way when they go out a hunting, consider it as an ill omen to meet a woman at such times. These houses, or huts, are not divided by partitions, but the several chambers are distinguished by logs, or pieces of wood, laid on the ground; and the whole compass of

the hut is so contrived that the hearth of stone can be placed in the centre. The smoke rises through the top, which is open. In these huts sleep the whole family: the master, with his wife and daughters, on one side of the fire-place; his sons, and the men and maid-servants, on the other. None of these northern nations make use of beds. The whole family lie on bearskins, spread in the room; and when they rise in the morning, the skins are taken up, and laid by till wanted again for the same occasion.

Their household furniture consists of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, spoons, and sometimes tin or even silver basons; to which may be added the implements of fishing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry such a number of things with them in their excursions, they build in the forests, at certain distances, little huts, made like pigeon-houses, and placed upon the trunk of a tree, cut off at the height of about six feet from the root. In these elevated huts they keep their goods and provisions; and though they are never shut, yet they are never plundered. A black cat in each house is reckoned one of the most valuable appendages; they talk to it as to a rational creature; and, in hunting and fishing parties, it is their usual attendant.

The rein-deer supply the Laplanders with the greatest part of their provisions; the chase and the fishery afford the rest. Their principal dishes are the flesh of the rein-deers, and puddings which they make of their blood, by putting it, either alone or mixed with wild berries, into the stomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the flesh of the bear is considered by them as their most delicate meat. They eat every kind of fish, as well as all sorts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey and carnivorous creatures. Their winter provisions consist chiefly of flesh, and fish dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without any sort of dressing. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk; they make also broths and fish-soups. Brandy is very scarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a carpet on the ground; and the men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little cup for drinking. Before and after the meal they make a short prayer; and as soon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand. When they make merry, or drink for pleasure, brandy is their liquor; and nothing will so soon win their affections as a present of it. The Laplanders of Denmark

mark have a sour liquor, which they drink with greater gust than either beer or brandy; it is made by an infusion of juniper-berries, and a grain like lentils, both of which grow there in plenty. They make a brandy of the same grain, and it has a like effect as that drawn from the grape; they drink it as a common drink. Tobacco is much used, which they purchase from Norway, and of which they make snuff. Indeed these northern nations, where bread and salt is so scarce, have so particular an inclination for tobacco, that it is almost fatal to them.

Customs, Manners, &c.—These people are chiefly divided into Lapland fishers and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink, or in the neighbourhood of some lake, from which they draw their subsistence. The others seek their support upon the mountains and their environs, possessing herds of rein-deer, more or less numerous, which they use according to the season, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very industrious herdsmen, and are rich in comparison to the Lapland fishers. Some of them possess 600 or 1000 rein-deer, and have often money and plate besides. The Lapland fishers, who are also called Laplanders of the Woods, because in summer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the forests, live by fishing and hunting, and choose their situation by its convenience for either. The greatest part of them, however, have some rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chase: and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almost entirely abolished the use of the bow and arrow. The employment of the women consists in making nets for the fishery, in drying fish and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheese, and tanning hides; but it is the business of the men to look after the kitchen, in which it is said the women never interfere.

In summer they hunt on foot with dogs, which are of a very good sort, both for scent and attack; and, to make them fiercer, they keep them always tied up: but in winter they track the wild beasts in the snow, and follow the track, with long wooden skates on their feet. Small beasts they kill with bows and arrows, the larger ones with spears and fire-arms. Ermines and beavers are caught in traps, as we catch mice; and squirrels they kill with blunt darts, that their skins may not be injured; indeed they are careful, with pointed darts, not to strike the animal in a part that will injure the skin, as they are excellent marksmen. Hares are caught in snares; and whoever finds one snared, will always restore it to the right owner. The rein-deer is killed at rutting-time: by tying a doe to a tree,

the bucks will soon come about her, and when they are within gun-shot, they fire at them; but in the spring they soon overtake them with their skates.

Bear-hunting is one of the Laplander's principal amusements, as well as employments. The first step they take is to trace out the bear's den, by their track in the snow; and he who finds it, is said to have *circumvented* him, and has the chief management of the hunt. When a den is discovered, they joyfully invite their relations and friends to the sport, with the same ceremony as we invite our friends to a feast; bear's flesh being their greatest dainty. This is about March or April, when the snow is deepest, and they can best make use of their skates. When they reach the bear's den, they fall on courageously with spears and fire-arms, till they have killed him; this done, they sing a song in token of victory; after which they drag the bear out, beating him with rods and small sticks. They then put him on a sledge, and draw him home. It being considered as the greatest piece of bravery in a Laplander to destroy these animals, such as have so distinguished themselves, adorn their caps with as many tin-wire laces as they have killed bears.

The Laplanders pursue wild beasts over the snow, by means of long wooden skates, eight or nine feet in length, and about twice as broad as the foot. One skate is generally a foot longer than the other. The bottom is covered with rein-deer skin with the hair on, the grain of which turns backwards, in order to prevent their slipping back: they are fastened to the feet by withs that gird the foot, and thence tied round the leg. With these skates, by the help of a stick, with a round piece of wood at the bottom, to prevent its entering the snow, will they drive themselves along so incredibly swift, as to overtake the fleetest rein-deer; and, what is astonishing, they will, by writhing and twisting their bodies, ascend, by windings, the highest mountains, and descend from the tops again without any danger of falling, which seems almost an impossibility. In climbing the rocks, the hair of the skins with which the skates are covered, prevents their going backward; and when they descend, their motion is as swift as the wind. Some use these skates better than others; but those who are masters of the art of skating, will travel fifty miles in a day, and, after taking some refreshment, will appear as vigorous as if they had never stirred.

Most of them in summer time travel on foot; in winter in sledges, which having a flat part behind, the person within leans against it with his back, and is tied close in with linen or leather fillets,

fillets, so as to leave only the upper part of their bodies at liberty. This sledge is drawn by one rein-deer, not joined to it as we join our horses to a carriage, but by a single rope fastened on a thick cloth round the animal's neck, and passing between his fore and hind legs to the prow, or head of the sledge. He who rides governs the beast with a single rein fixed to his head and horns, which he holds in his right hand by a stick fastened at the end of it, and by which he can throw the rein at pleasure, either on the right side or the left. The sledge he governs with his left hand; for, being semicircular at bottom, it requires some care to balance it. They will thus travel at a surprising rate; and the women are as expert in conducting the machine as the men.

When a Laplander intends to marry, he or his friends court the father of the female with brandy; and when, with some difficulty, he gains admittance to her, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or some other eatable, which she rejects before company but accepts in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchased from the father, by her lover, with a bottle of brandy; and this prolongs the courtship sometimes for three years. The priest of the parish at last celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to serve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home. They are very fond of having a numerous family, but seldom have many children.

Funeral Ceremonies.—A person employed by the North Sea Company of Copenhagen, to make discoveries in the most northern countries of Europe, gives the following account of the funeral ceremonies practised in Russian Lapland. "Coming," says that traveller, "to the house of a native deceased, we saw the corpse taken from the bear-skins on which it lay, and removed into a wooden coffin, by six of his most intimate friends, after being first wrapped in linen, the face and hands alone being bare.

"In one hand they put a purse with some money, to pay the fee of the porter at the gate of Paradise; in the other, a certificate signed by the priest, directed to St. Peter, to witness that the defunct was a good Christian, and deserved admission into heaven. At the head of the coffin was placed a picture of St. Nicholas, a saint greatly revered in all parts of Russia, on account of his supposed friendship for the dead. They also put into the coffin a rundlet of brandy, some dried fish, and rein-deer venison, that he might not starve on the road.

"This being done, they lighted some fir-tree roots, piled up at a convenient distance from the

coffin, and then wept, howled, and made a variety of strange gestures and contortions, expressive of the violence of their grief."

Population.—In Tooke's View of the Russian Empire, the population of Russian Lapland is estimated at no more than 1200 families, or 6000 souls: and, indeed, the whole country is very thinly peopled; its whole population being estimated at no more than 50,000 persons, which is something short of one individual to three square miles.

Commerce, &c.—Little can be said of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports consist of fish, rein-deer, furs, baskets, and toys; with some dried pikes, and cheeses made of rein-deer's milk. They receive for these rix-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, spirituous liquors, tobacco, and other necessities. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconsiderable profit. The reader may make some estimate of the medium of commerce among them, on hearing, that 50 squirrel-skins, or one fox-skin, and a pair of Lapland shoes, produce one rix-dollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greatest part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. The balance of trade, however, is generally in favour of the Laplanders; because they can furnish greater quantities of merchandise in skins, &c. than they want returned in foreign commodities.

The money they have among them is chiefly rix-dollars, but they seldom take any to their principal fairs (of which there are two every year, in each Lapmark, or province of Lapland, which hold two or three weeks at a time), they deal by barter, that is, exchanging one commodity for another, unless they wish to purchase any thing curious and rare, when it is bought with money.

Language.—The language of the Laplanders is of Finnish origin, and comprehends so many dialects, that it is with difficulty they understand each other. They have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make use of in their *rounces*, a sort of sticks that they call *pistave*, and which serve them for an almanack.

Religion, Superstition, &c.—Missionaries from the Christianized parts of Scandinavia introduced among them the Christian religion; but they cannot be said even yet to be Christians, though they have among them some religious seminaries, instituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority of the Laplanders practise as gross superstitions and idolatries as are to be found among the most uninstructed Pagans.

They

They still retain the worship of several of the Teutonic gods; and have among them many remains of Druidical institutions. They believe the transmigration of the soul, and have festivals set apart for the worship of certain genii, called *jeuhles*, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or substance, they assign to them neither images nor statues.

They are also still greatly addicted to magic, one of the principal instruments pertaining to which is the Runic drum, which is a box of an oval form, covered at one end with a skin, and furnished on the other with a number of strings and pieces of iron, to rattle and make a noise: strange figures, intended to represent the heavenly bodies, beasts and birds, with many other characters, are drawn on the skin. The enchanter puts a ring upon his drum, and beats on it with a stick made of a horn of the rein-deer; and, according to the figure on which the vibration of the skin causes the ring to fall, he answers all questions concerning former or future events: at the same time, he invokes the spirits to assist his drum; and, in the course of this mummary, falls into a fit, during which his soul is supposed to be with the spirits of the air, hearing the converse, and learning the degrees of heaven. Families in general possess such a drum; which the Laplander consults before he goes a journey, and by which he is guided and directed on all occasions: but, in affairs of greater moment, he applies to the *Noauids*, or professed magicians, to consult it for him. These drums are preserved with much care and se-

crecy, being hidden from sight, except at the time when they are used. A woman dare not approach the place where one of these drums is supposed to be concealed, much less dare she presume to touch it.

Besides the above, they have many Runic verses, which are supposed to contain a healing power, to charm away diseases. These are very numerous; and, indeed, it is not to be wondered at, for it is the chief part of the practice of ignorant empyrics and old women, to impress upon the minds of sick persons that they are under the influence of witchcraft, and can only be relieved by means of their incantations.

Government, Laws, &c.—The Laplanders are governed by the Swedish laws, and have under their king a provincial judge, a senator of Sweden, called by them *lagman*, and his deputy, called *under-lagman*. Whenever a judge gives sentence, either in a civil or criminal case, it is always in presence of a priest, from an opinion that when a priest is by, the judge will be restrained from acting unjustly.

The tribute they pay the crown of Sweden is either the tenth part of their rein-deer, or three rix-dollars for each deer, and a pair of shoes, as carriage-money of the deer to the king's store-houses or treasury; a considerable part of which is allotted, as observed, for the maintenance of the clergy. Besides this, they pay something to the king of Denmark, and the emperor of Russia; not that they are any way subject to these princes, but in return for the many advantages they receive from their territories, having liberty to hunt and fish there.

CHAP. VI.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

SECTION I.

General Remarks—Name—Situation and Extent—Boundaries—Divisions, Provinces, Cities, Chief Towns, &c. &c.

General Remarks. **T**HE Russian Empire, which has of late made so conspicuous a figure amongst the states of Europe, is the most extensive that ever existed; the whole length being about 9200 English miles, and the breadth 2400*. The oriental part presents vast deserts, and a slender population. But we have now exclusively to give an account of the vast possessions of Russia in Europe.

Name.—This part of the Russian empire embraces many ancient kingdoms and states; but the chief name, that of Russia, ought only to be here considered. "During the grand conflux of nations towards the west," observes Pinkerton, "which attended the decline and fall of the Roman empire, the Slavonic tribe of *Rossi* escaped the observation of history till the ninth century; and it is uncertain whether the term was native, or imported by the Scandinavian chief who founded the Russian monarchy. In the 16th century, when Russia first attracted the observation of enlightened Europe, we find that the new appellation of *Muscovia* had unaccountably passed, among foreigners, from the capital to the kingdom, an impropriety which long maintained its ground, and has not even yet finally expired. It probably arose from the name of Russia having been imparted, with the epithets White, Red, &c. to distant provinces, one or two of which were subject to Poland; whence the vagueness of the appellation induced strangers to indicate the kingdom by the metropolis, a practice not unusual in the obscurity of the middle ages."

Situation and Extent.—European Russia is situated between 44 and 72 degrees north latitude, and 15 and 65 east longitude; and extends upwards of 1500 geographical miles in length, and 1100 in breadth, comprehending a surface ex-

clusive of the recent acquisition of Finland and the territories plundered from Prussia, as the result of the battle of Friedland) of 1,200,000 sq. miles. Perhaps the whole of the European territory may, without exaggeration, at the present time, be estimated at 2,000,000 square miles.

Boundaries.—This vast extent of country is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east by the Uralian Mountains, which divide it from Asia; on the south by Circassia, the Sea of Asoph, the Black Sea, and part of Turkey; and on the west by the Austrian dominions, Prussia, the Baltic Sea, the Gulf of Bothnia, and Swedish Lapland.

Divisions, &c.—The Russian empire in Europe was formerly composed of several kingdoms or states, the principal of which were Livonia, Ingria, Muscovy Proper, or Western Russia, Eastern Muscovy or Russia, and Russian Lapland; and to these might now be added the whole of Finland.

In order to unite and consolidate this vast empire, and to render the inhabitants, as far as possible, but one people, the late empress Catharine endeavoured to sink these distinctions, and divided the whole territory into seventeen governments, which, however, have since been considerably increased; so that, at present, this empire in Europe contains forty governments, or provinces, of which, by availing ourselves of the most recent sources of information, we hope to present our readers with a more accurate account than has hitherto appeared. In enumerating the different governments, we shall begin with the north†.

ARCHANGEL,

The most extensive government of the empire, extends from the borders of Lapland, on the west, along the shores of the White Sea and the Arctic Ocean, to the Uralian Mountains and the Asiatic boundary on the east. The cold is so excessive here, that the rivers are frozen full eight months

* Vide Tooke's View of the Russian Empire, vol. i. p. 6.

† In our orthography of persons and places, we have followed Mr. Tooke, who, we believe, has alone explained the principles of Russian orthography, in his View of Russia, vol. i. p. 130.

in the year; and the soil and face of the country have a similar appearance with that of the rudest parts of Lapland. The chief places are,

1. *Archangel*, or *St. Michael the Archangel*, a considerable city, advantageously situated on the east side of the river *Dwina*, which falls into the *White Sea*, 18 miles below it. Except the exchange, and other public edifices, it was originally entirely built of timber; but of late, several stone or brick houses have been erected, chiefly of modern architecture.

The most considerable edifice here is the palace, or hall, built of large square stones, after the Italian manner, in which the merchants, both Russian and foreign, have large and convenient apartments, for themselves and their wares: but after the ships are sailed away, which they commonly do in October, they are obliged to remove to other lodgings. This palace is a large stately building, with a spacious court before it, which reaches quite to the river. This place is very populous, and well supplied with provisions: the inhabitants are estimated at 20,000.

The foundation of the commerce of *Archangel* was laid by the English, in the year 1553; and the advantages reaped from the Russian trade induced other nations to resort thither. The gradual increase and prosperity, however, of *Petersburgh*, caused the trade to decline; yet it still continues a place of considerable commerce. *Archangel* is the see and residence of a Russian archbishop, and stands 400 miles north-east of *Petersburgh*.

2. *Petchara*, or *Petzora*, situated upon the river of the same name, about 30 leagues from the sea, is but a small place, wholly built with timber; it is supposed to have been formerly called *Puste Osoro*, from some golden mines or sands, that fell from the *Obian* mountains into the river.

3. *Mezen*, a considerable sea-port, situated at the mouth of a large river of the same name, 128 miles N. N. E. of *Archangel*. Its principal trade arises from the conveyance of the produce of the interior, during the summer, while the sea is open, to the place last mentioned, from whence it is exported to all parts of Europe.

OLONETZ,

Situated to the S. W. of *Archangel*, abounds in mines of copper, lead, and iron. It is greatly intersected with lakes and rivers. The chief towns are,

1. *Olonetz*, situated on the small river *Olona*, near its estuary into the eastern side of *Lake Ladoga*, 104 miles north-east of *Petersburgh*; it is famous for a large copper mine in the neighbourhood, and a celebrated mineral spring, much fre-

quented. The town is indifferently built, but is rapidly improving.

2. *Povinetz*, seated on the northern shore of *Lake Onega*, is a place of some trade, the lake being navigable nearly its whole length, by which, during the summer, the produce of the north is forwarded down this, and the *Lake Ladoga*, by a canal to *Petersburgh*.

VIBORG, OR WIBURG,

Situated to the west of the last mentioned, is the province lately called *Russian Finland*; it formerly belonged to Sweden, but was finally ceded to Russia by the treaty of *Abo*, in 1743. Besides pasture, it produces rye, oats, and barley, but not sufficient for the inhabitants. The only place of note is

Viborg, or *Wiburg*, a fortified sea-port, well situated for trade, at the northern extremity of the *Gulf of Finland*, 67 miles N. N. W. of *Petersburgh*. A few houses are constructed of brick; but the greater part of wood. The inhabitants, about 9000 in number, export planks, tar, tallow, &c. and import wine, spices, salt, &c.

FINLAND,

Situated to the west of *Wiburg*, is a very large province, being no less than 300 miles long, and 200 broad. It was formerly governed by its own monarchs, till about the middle of the 13th century, when it was conquered by *Eric*, king of Sweden, of which kingdom it composed a principal province till the peace of 1809, when it was finally ceded to Russia. The inhabitants are a distinct race of people from both the Swedes and Russians, have a peculiar language, and singular manners and customs: This province retains most of its ancient privileges, with some occasional modifications, which have been necessarily introduced under the new government. It abounds in grain, cattle, fish, butter, cheese, &c. of which great quantities are exported. Lutheranism is the established religion; but the Greek worship has been lately introduced by the Russians. The chief towns are,

1. *Abo*, situated at the mouth of the river *Aurojoki*, near the point where the gulfs of *Bothnia* and *Finland* unite: the town is pretty well built; but several of the houses are of wood, painted red, to resemble brick. It is a bishop's see; has a handsome cathedral, and is the residence of the governor of the province. Here is a celebrated university, generally attended by about 300 students; having a library of 8000 volumes. A great trade is carried on from hence, in the produce of the country. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 5000.

2. *Nystadt*, a strong town, 55 miles N. N. W. of *Abo*,

Abo, has a convenient harbour, and a tolerably good trade: the town is small, and the houses are chiefly of timber.

3. *Louisa*, situated on a bay on the north coast of the Gulf of Finland, a few miles west from Wiburg, was formerly called *Degerly*. It was first built in 1745, and strongly fortified, as a frontier town towards Russia. The houses are all of wood, two stories high, and painted red.

4. *Wasa*, or *Vasa*, a considerable town, the capital of North Finland, situated on the Bothnian Gulf, 250 miles north of Abo. It was entered, and considerably injured, by the Russians in 1809, who plundered the town. It is strongly fortified, and carries on a great trade, having a good harbour.

ST. PETERSBURGH.

The government of St. Petersburg, compared with several others, is but of small extent: it chiefly lies at the upper end of the Gulf of Finland, to the south of the Lake Ladoga. Formerly it was a complete bog, interspersed with some fertile spots; and, till the building of the metropolis, was reckoned extremely unwholesome. The chief places are,

1. *St. Petersburg*, the capital of the whole empire, of which the works of several travellers, who have lately visited Russia, have enabled us to give a most interesting description. This capital lies in 60 degrees north latitude, and is built at the mouth of the river Neva, on several islands, which were once nothing more than marshy spots of mud, overrun with reeds, as indeed is all the country round; but the immortal founder, whose undertakings always possessed a magnificence of idea, converted a miserable bog into a fine city. "I was struck," says Mr. Wraxall, "with a pleasing astonishment, while I wandered among havens, streets, and public buildings, which have risen, as by enchantment, within the memory of men still alive; and have converted the marshy islands of the Neva into one of the most magnificent cities of the earth. The imagination, aided by so many visible objects, rises to the wondrous founder, and beholds in idea the tutelary genius of Peter, yet hovering over the child of his production, and viewing with a parent's fondness its rising palaces and temples. The names on which ancient story dwells with so much fondness, sink on a comparison with this immortal man; and the fabulous legislators of Greece and Egypt never presumed to attempt the mighty transformation which the czar completed."

Petersburgh is the centre of commerce in all these northern parts; it is the foundation on which all the Russian naval force has been

erected; it is so well fortified as to be impregnable; and is the port on which their nursery of sailors most depends. The houses, like those of Amsterdam, are all built upon piles; and the place very much resembles the cities in Holland, the streets being very broad, with canals running through many of them, and several planted, on each side the canal, with trees. Though there are some errors in the plan, there are also some regular and well-built streets, chiefly paved, but many of them floored with timber, which, in accidents of fire, carry the communication rapidly. The houses are large; and the palaces of the nobility exceed, in size, those of any other city. The public buildings are so numerous as to constitute a fifth or sixth part of the whole capital; and the houses of the nobility are mostly vast piles of building, and furnished in an elegant style.

M. Seume, who visited the principal places in Russia, no longer since than the autumn of 1805, says, alluding to the entrance to Petersburg: "From Strelna, a great number of country-houses may be seen to the right, which belong to persons of distinction at the capital; and for the last six versts to that place an uninterrupted chain of them extends on both sides. No great city in Europe possesses, within my knowledge, such a vicinity as Petersburg can boast on this side. It is, however, only on this side; the others are, from circumstances, not near so full. The entrance into the city itself is not so grand by land as a person is apt to expect after such a display of magnificent villas; but the approach by water, either up or down the river, is striking, and perhaps unique. He who has been upon the Neva above and below, and has taken a few walks on the quay and the banks of the river, may with truth assert that he has seen the most magnificent part of Petersburg, and in every respect the one most deserving of notice."

The palace of the emperor is an amazing structure; yet all the capital houses are rather great than beautiful: the size is all that strikes us; and they are stuck so thick with ornaments, as to leave us scarce room to judge of their proportion. The Italian architecture is mixed with the Dutch; and the whole forms but very inelegant buildings, in which true taste is sacrificed to splendour. If the eye do not scrutinize into the separate parts of the buildings, but takes in only the streets at large, the city may be pronounced a very fine one. Many of the houses are erected with wood, the sides consisting of square-sided pieces of timber laid upon each other; the roofs are thin deal spars, laid tolerably thick, and lined with laths, covered with turf or bark. The houses are seldom more than one story high; and those

of the common people consist of but one room; but the public buildings have throughout a very handsome appearance, and are, like every thing else, on a larger scale than elsewhere. The churches have generally a large cupola, encircled with four smaller ones, and covered with gilt copper, which has a fine effect in the sunshine.

The river Neva, which runs through the city, is in most places broader than the Thames at London; it is deep, rapid, and clear as crystal. Its banks exhibit the most lively scenes: they are lined on each side with a continued range of handsome buildings; and it has one of the finest walks in the world, not a quay, but a parade a mile long. It is embanked by a parapet wall, and has a pavement of hewn granite; and over the river is a bridge of pontoons.

One of the noblest monuments paid to the veneration of the founder of Petersburg, is the equestrian statue of that monarch, cast in bronze, by a celebrated French statuary named Falconet, at the expence of the late empress, and erected in the area before the palace. The pedestal on which it stands is a stupendous mass of reddish granite, which was discovered, half-buried, in the midst of a morass, at some distance from the city. The morass was drained to get it out, and a road was cut through a forest to pass it. After it was reduced, it weighed 1500 tons. It was drawn, with forty men seated on the top of it, by a windlass, and large friction balls, placed in grooves, and fixed on each side of the road, to the banks of the river, on which it was conveyed, in a vessel constructed purposely to receive it, to the place where it now stands. At its base it is 42 feet long, 36 at the top, 21 thick, and 17 high; a bulk greatly surpassing in weight the most boasted monuments of Roman grandeur.

In this production the artist has united the greatest simplicity with the truest sublimity of conception. No other statue, whether ancient or modern, gave him the design, which is singular in its kind, and is admirably adapted to express the character of the man, and the nation over which he reigned. Instead of a pedestal adorned with inscriptions, or surrounded by slaves, he appears mounted on a rock or stone of a prodigious size, up the ascent of which the horse labours, and appears to have nearly reached its summit. This attitude has given him room to exert great anatomical beauty and skill in the muscles of the horse's hind thighs and hams, on which the whole weight of his body is necessarily sustained. The czar's figure is full of fire and spirit: he sits on a bear's skin, and is clad in a simple habit, not characteristic of any particular country, but such as may be worn, without violation of propriety, by an inhabitant of any.

His eye is directed to some apparently distant object, designed to be the citadel; and on his features are most strongly impressed the sentiment of "deliberation and public care." His left hand holds the bridle; and his right is extended, as the artist himself expressed it, *en pere et en maitre*, "like a father and sovereign." Under the figure, on the rock, is this inscription—"PETRO PRIMO CATHARINA SECUNDA POSUIT, 1782."

Peter began the foundation of the fortress in 1706. Its walls are of brick, and strengthened with five regular bastions; they encircle a small island of about half a mile in circumference, formed by the Great and Little Neva. Within the walls are barracks for a small garrison, several wards used as a common gaol, and dungeons for the confinement of state-prisoners. In the fortress is a small arsenal, which, among other military stores, contains some ancient cannon. In a separate building of the fortress is the mint. The gold and silver are sent from the mines of Siberia; and the separation is performed in this laboratory. Large quantities of Dutch dollars are melted down here, for the purpose of coining into rubles; as half the duties are discharged in that money, by all foreign merchants, except the English, who are exempted by treaty: but as these, and the gold and silver obtained from the mines of Siberia, are by no means sufficient for the money in circulation, a considerable quantity of both these metals is annually imported. There is here a very ingenious and simple piece of mechanism, a machine for stamping the coin, which must not be omitted, because it was an invention of the Empress Catharine II. Within the fortress is a four-oared boat, called *The Little Grandsire*, which is secured, with great veneration, in a brick building, constructed for that purpose; and preserved as a memorial to future ages of its being the origin of the Russian fleet. Contiguous to the fortress stands a wooden hovel, dignified by its having served for the habitation of Peter the Great, while the fortress was constructing: it still exists in its original state, and stands under a brick building, purposely erected to preserve it from destruction. Near this house is another four-oared boat, the work of Peter's own hands.

The cathedral of St. Peter and Paul is in a different style of architecture from that usually employed in the construction of churches for the service of the Greek religion. Instead of domes, it has a spire of copper gilt, the highest part of which rises above 240 feet from the ground. Its interior decorations of paintings, &c. are in an elegant and modern style. In this cathedral are deposited the remains of Peter the Great, and of the



Russian Country.

the successive sovereigns since his death, who are ranged in coffers side by side, but have not any of them marble monuments erected to their memories; nor is there any other motive to induce a traveller to enter this church, except the consciousness that he beholds the wood which contains the ashes of Peter, and that mingled sentiment of reverence and pleasure which the mind may experience from such a contemplation. Only one monarch is excluded, as if unworthy to be entombed with his progenitors and predecessors on the throne of Russia: this is the late unfortunate Peter III. who, after his death, was exposed, during some days, in the monastery of St. Alexander Newfskoi, a few miles out of town, to convince the people that he had not suffered any violence, but ended his life naturally: he was afterwards privately interred there.

"There is not in Petersburg," says M. Seume, a single church which possesses the perfections naturally expected in an edifice of that description at such a place. The church of St. Isaac is, in its exterior appearance, a heavy, ill-formed heap of marble, on which science would now be thrown away. The church which they are building has the disadvantage of being too near the canal, and consequently must have a damp foundation, even if its appearance be improved by the removal of the neighbouring buildings. As far as can be judged from present appearances, it will be large and showy; but simplicity joined with the sublime and beautiful I have not yet been able to discover. Nothing but a blind national partiality can make any one imagine that it will rival St. Peter's at Rome. The quay on the Neva is unique; and the pillars on the balustrade of the Summer Garden are perhaps only to be equalled, either in ancient or modern art, by the columns of the Pantheon at Rome. The shaft of some of them is formed from a single block. Paris can shew nothing equal to these; but I do not, on that account, assert that Petersburg is a finer city than Paris. It is so in particular points; but, on the whole, Paris certainly excels it; and Rome is superior to both, principally from the grandeur of its ancient remains.

"The Castle Place at Petersburg is undoubtedly the finest and largest in Europe, whatever may be said against its want of uniformity. The grand parade held there is in every respect superior to that in front of the Thuilleries at Paris, whether we consider the number and appearance of the men, or the manner in which the whole is conducted. If there be better warriors on the Seine, it is only because they are animated by a better spirit. The Castle Place has, indeed, lost a considerable part of its size from the prome-

nade formed round the Admiralty; yet it is still the largest that I have seen in any city, not excepting St. Peter's Place at Rome. Even this promenade was an undertaking which at other places would have excited astonishment. The mere labour of levelling and raising the ground, so as to pass over canals, was such as would have been attended with considerable difficulties in other capitals; and I even now can hardly conjecture how such a number of the most beautiful lime-trees, and of so considerable a size, can have been collected in so short a time, and in such a climate as that of Petersburg. The stems of them are all guarded by moss to a considerable height against the inclemency of the atmosphere; besides which, they are securely propped, and tended with great care. In a few years, under such management, this will certainly be one of the most beautiful walks to be met with.

"He who stands at the gate of the Admiralty, and looks to the three principal points of perspective, certainly enjoys a view which probably cannot be equalled in all Europe. The Newsky prospect is the most extensive and handsome. This street is so broad, that the emperor Paul caused a fine walk of limes to be made through the middle of it for those on foot, and yet three large carriages may conveniently pass together on each side of it. There are several other streets which are not much narrower. The Million, formerly so famed, is now hardly accounted one of the principal streets, much as it is distinguished by the splendour of several buildings here and there. The inhabitants of Petersburg, like all other patriotic enthusiasts, are more proud of these beauties than they have occasion to be."

Sunday is always at Petersburg a day of great festivity, but it only manifests itself after the hours of devotion. On this day the parade is well worthy the traveller's notice; it commences at ten o'clock, in that great area which lies between one side of the winter-palace and the magnificent crescent, which formerly constituted the palace of Catharine's most cherished favourite, Lanskoi. The men, at the time Sir John Carr witnessed the ceremony, in 1805, amounted to 4000, and presented a very noble and martial appearance. "Their uniform," says he, "consisted of a round hat, with only a rim in front, and green feather; a short green coat, buttoned tight round the body; and white duck breeches, cut very high, so that no waistcoat is necessary. The belly of the soldier is tightly strapped in, for the purpose of giving an artificial breadth to the chest. With the exception of the English and consular guards, I never saw finer men in

my life, nor greater neatness in dress and person."

There is a convent which deserves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated; 200 of them of superior rank, and the others daughters of citizens and tradesmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements suitable to their conditions of life; and those of the lower class are presented with a sum of money, as a dowry if they marry, or to secure to themselves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a founding-hospital, assistant to that noble one established at Moscow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately; after which she leaves the child to the state, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

The academy established by Peter the Great has a multiplicity of professors in most sciences, and the belles lettres, who have liberal salaries. The building is a superb pile, containing two stories, with a beautiful cupola in the middle, and an observatory. Here is a good library, and all manner of natural and artificial curiosities. "In one of the galleries," says a traveller, "in a case, is the skin of a Frenchman tanned and stuffed. This has been the tallest man I ever saw. In another case is his skeleton, and a pair of breeches made of *his wife's skin*, also dressed. The leather was like buff. On the bottom, or pavement, stands the skin of an English chesnut horse, stuffed, saddled, and bridled, and beside it the skeleton. Peter the Great used to ride this horse. Here I saw the head of the unfortunate Miss Hamilton, a Swedish lady, who lost it for having murdered her illegitimate child; and this is the only murder of that kind I ever heard of in Russia. This lady was maid of honour to the empress Catharine. It is said Peter went and saw her executed. He wept much, but could not prevail upon himself to pardon her. He caused her head to be capped and injected. The forehead is almost complete. The face is the most beautiful my eyes ever beheld. The *dura mater* and brain are all preserved in their natural situation. This is kept in spirits in a large crystal vessel."

In this building, besides the above, are deposited great quantities of earths, fossils, minerals, shells, mosses, corals, &c. In one room is a figure of Peter the Great in wax-work, as large as life. He sits in an elbow-chair, cross-legged, dressed in a blue suit of clothes, white stockings, and has a hanger by his side. He has short black hair; and is surrounded by mathematical, philosophical, and mechanical instruments.

The royal winter-palace here is built of brick, stuccoed white, and was erected by the empress

Elizabeth; it is very large and heavy. The situation is lively, being on the banks of the Neva, and in the centre of the town. The crown, which is deposited here, is one of the richest in Europe. It is shaped like a bonnet, and totally covered with diamonds. In the sceptre is the celebrated one purchased by Prince Orloff for 500,000 rubles, and presented by him to his sovereign mistress. It far exceeds Pitt's diamond in size, and is reckoned not inferior in water. Lapidaries declare it the most beautiful jewel ever brought from Golconda.

A winter and summer-garden, comprised within the scite of one building, are singular curiosities, and such as do not perhaps occur in any other palace in Europe. The summer-garden, in the true Asiatic style, occupies the whole level top of the edifice. The winter-garden is entirely roofed, and surrounded with glass frames; it is an high and spacious hothouse, laid out in gravel-walks, ornamented with parterres of flowers, orange-trees, and other shrubs, and inhabited by several birds of sundry sorts and various climates, flitting from tree to tree. This exhibits a most pleasing effect; and is wonderfully delightful, when contrasted with the dismal and dreary winter-season in Russia.

There are several very convenient and well-supplied markets in this city; but that which is annually held upon the ice on the Neva, is well worthy of description. At the conclusion of the long fast, which closes on the 24th of December, (O.S.) the Russians lay in their provisions for the remaining part of the winter: for this purpose, an annual market, or fair, which lasts three days, is held upon the river near the fortress. A long street, above a mile in length, is lined on each side with an immense store of provisions, sufficient for the supply of the capital for the next three months. Thousands of raw carcasses of oxen, sheep, hogs, pigs, together with geese, fowls, and every species of frozen food, are exposed for sale. The larger quadrupeds are grouped in various circles upright, their hind-legs fixed in the snow, with their heads and fore-legs turned towards each other. These tower above the rest, and occupy the hindermost row; next to them succeeds a regular series of animals, descending gradually to the smallest; intermixed with poultry and game, hanging in festoons, and garnished with heaps of fish, butter, and eggs. The most distant quarters help to supply this vast store of provisions; and the finest veal is sent, by land-carriage, as far as from Archangel.

This city, from its low and marshy situation, is much subject to inundations, which have occasionally risen so high as to threaten the town with

with total submersion. These floods are chiefly occasioned by a west or south-west wind, which, blowing directly from the gulf, obstructs the current of the Neva, and causes a vast accumulation of its waters; but these floods become less and less alarming, from the gradual raising of the ground, by buildings and other causes.

The bridge built across the Neva on pontoons, which is only wanted during the summer, is carefully taken down as soon as the frost makes its appearance, and removed to a place of security, till it is again wanted in the spring.

Petersburgh, although it is more compact than other Russian cities, and has the houses in many streets contiguous to each other, yet still has some resemblance to the other towns of this country, and is built in a very straggling manner. Notwithstanding the great efforts made by its noble founder, and the improvements of succeeding sovereigns, "it is still," as Mr. Wraxall says, "but an immense outline, that will require future sovereigns, if not future ages, to complete." The number of inhabitants in 1790 amounted to 126,700, who are known since to have considerably increased, so that they may be said to exceed 150,000, exclusive of seamen, and strangers, who are very numerous in time of peace. During winter, upwards of 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. This city is divided into 35 parishes, having as many churches: there is also a Jews' synagogue, lately erected; a great toleration in religious matters being allowed by the present emperor Alexander.

The royal palace of Peterhof, the usual summer residence of the emperors, situated about 20 miles from the capital, has gardens, which are celebrated for their taste and elegance, and are the frequent scenes of the most splendid entertainments. They have, from their number of *jets d'eau*, &c. been compared to those of Versailles: and, indeed, in one respect, they are far superior; for those of the latter only play upon particular occasions, while those of Peterhof are perpetual. In the garden is an elegant pavilion, constructed by order of the late empress, when she was Great Duchess. It contains 18 apartments, each furnished in different styles; namely, the Greek, Turkish, Chinese, &c. and is situate in the midst of a thick wood. There are in this elegant spot silver dolphins and gilded statues in great profusion; also two gladiators, placed in a basin of water, and represented with the modern instruments of war, a brace of pistols, which as they point to each other, the water gushes impetuously from the barrels.

The mountain of sledges, or the flying mountain, in these gardens, is a most extraordinary

building, and merits particular observation. Mr. Coxe thus describes it:—"It stands in the middle of an oblong area, inclosed by an open colonnade, with a flat roof, and railed in, for the convenience of holding spectators. The circumference of this colonnade is at least half a mile. In the middle of the area is the Flying Mountain, stretching nearly from one end to the other. It is a wooden building, supported upon pillars, representing an uneven surface of ground, or a mountain, composed of three principal ascents, gradually diminishing in height, with an intermediate space to resemble valleys; and from top to bottom is a floored way, in which three parallel grooves are formed. It is thus used: a small carriage, containing one person, being placed in the centre groove upon the highest point, goes with great rapidity down one hill; the velocity which it acquires in its descent, carries it up a second, and it continues to move in a similar manner until it arrives at the bottom of the area, where it rolls for a considerable way on the level surface, and stops before it attains the boundary. It is then placed in one of the side grooves, and drawn up by means of a cord fixed to a windlass. At the top of the mountain is a handsome apartment for the accommodation of the court and the principal nobility. There is also room for many thousand spectators within the colonnade, and upon its roof. These elegant gardens are frequently illuminated in the most superb manner."

2. *Cronstadt*, a fortress and sea-port, situated at the eastern extremity of the isle of Retuzari, 12 miles west of Petersburgh. Its harbour is the station of the Russian fleet; and here are great magazines of naval stores, and numerous docks and yards for building and careening ships of war. The town is like all the other places of this country, built in a very straggling manner, and occupying a much greater space of ground than the number of buildings seems to require. It was originally defended, towards the sea, by wooden piers projecting into the water; but of late several batteries have been erected, from the apprehension of an attack from the English squadron in the Baltic. This place was first built by Peter the Great, being coeval with, and deriving its consequence from the Russian navy. The inhabitants, including artificers, seamen, &c. somewhat exceed 10,000.

3. *Noteburgh*, an ancient city, and, previous to the building of Petersburgh, the capital of this province, then called *INGRIA*. It is situated on an island in the lake Ladoga, at the place where the river Neva proceeds from the lake, 25 miles east from the capital. Its trade is still considerable.

REVEL, OR ESTHONIA,

Situated to the south-west of the government of St. Petersburg, is nearly surrounded, on the east, north, and west, by the gulf of Finland and the Baltic. It is, in general, low and marshy; and hence the climate is moist and insalubrious. The chief places are,

1. *Revel*, an opulent and well-fortified city, situated near a fine bay on the gulf of Finland, in part on a plain, and in part on the declivity of a mountain, at the top of which there is a strong castle. Waldemar the Second, king of Denmark, founded this city, but sold it, together with Narva and Westenberg, to the grand master of the Teutonic order. Revel was one of the places originally admitted into the confederacy of the Hans Towns, and was a considerable commercial place till 1550, when the Russians removed the commerce of Revel to Narva, after having subdued the latter. But, in 1711, when the Russians conquered the former, they again turned its trade into the old channel; and since that period the place hath, in some degree, increased in opulence and importance. The houses are mostly well built of brick; and the citizens have very pleasant gardens without the walls. Two great fairs are annually held in May and September, which are much frequented. Here is a college, with four professors. Revel lies 164 miles W.S.W. of Petersburg.

2. *Narva*, a considerable town situated on the river Narova, eight miles from its mouth, which divides the two governments of St. Petersburg and Revel. It was originally built by Waldemar II. king of Denmark; taken by John Basilowitz, czar of Moscow or Russia; retaken by the Swedes; and finally reduced by Peter the Great, in 1700. The houses are built of brick, stuccoed white; and it has more the appearance of a German than a Russian town. It lies 68 miles S.W. of Petersburg.

RIGA, OR LIVONIA,

To the south of the last-mentioned, was, for a great length of time, a constant source, and perpetual scene, of the most bloody wars between the three bordering powers of Russia, Sweden, and Poland. It was finally ceded to Russia by the peace of Nystadt, in 1721. It is so fertile in grain, rye, and barley, that it is called the granary of the north; and it would produce a great deal more, if it were not so full of morasses and forests. The houses in the interior of the country are all built of timber. The chief places are,

1. *Riga*, a large, populous, and opulent city, the most considerable place for trade, next to Petersburg, in the Russian dominions. It stands

very advantageously for commerce, near the mouth of the river Dwina, which, with its branches, extending a great way into Poland and Russia, bring immense quantities of commodities, which are exported from this city. Of these the principal are hemp, flax, timber for masts and other purposes, pitch, tar, and pot-ashes. All these commodities are produced in the provinces, or near them, through which those rivers run: and some of them, by means of short land carriage, from one river to another, much further; even from the Ukraine and the Polish provinces that border upon Turkey. Charles IX. king of Sweden, besieged Riga unsuccessfully in 1605, and again in 1609; but his son and successor, Gustavus Adolphus, took it in 1620. Riga is well fortified; having strong walls, bulwarks, a very large trench on the land side, and a strong castle on the river, where the governor of the province resides. Here is a floating wooden bridge over the river 40 feet wide, and 2000 in length: in the winter, when the ice sets in, it is removed; and in the spring it is replaced. In 1795 the population amounted to nearly 25,000; and since that period it has greatly increased.

2. *Pernov*, or *Perna*, situated on the northern coast of the gulf of Riga, is famous for an university, removed thither from Derpt in 1685, but which is now not much frequented. This place formerly was strongly fortified, but has of late gone to decay.

COURLAND.

The duchy of Courland was formerly a province of Poland, but was annexed to Russia at the first partition of that unfortunate country in 1772. It is fertile in corn, hemp, and grass; and is, in general, a flat country, mostly open, but in some parts covered with immense forests. The towns are tolerably built, and the villages neat.

Mittau, the capital, is the only town worthy of notice in this government. It is situated on the river Aa, 56 miles S.S.W. of Riga. The houses are for the most part constructed of timber, and built in a very straggling manner. Being an inland town, it is not a place of much trade, except on account of its annual fairs, which are well attended.

POLOTSK,

To the south-east of Courland, formerly comprised a part of Poland; but, together with the preceding and following provinces, was finally annexed to Russia in 1772. It is remarkably fertile in grain and pasture, being well watered by many large rivers, particularly the Dwina, which

which runs directly through the whole province. The only town worthy of notice is

Polotsk, finely situated on the Dwina, 168 miles south-east of Riga, with which city it carries on a great trade in flax and timber, which are floated down the river, during summer, in great abundance. It is chiefly built of wood, with a few stone or brick edifices, after the German manner of building.

MOGHILEF, OR MOHILEV,

Situated to the south of the last-mentioned, is a fertile province, abounding in all the necessities, and many of the luxuries, of life. The capital,

Moghilef, situated on the Dnieper, is a place of great trade, that river being navigable from hence to its entrance into the Black Sea.

NOVGOROD, OR NOVOGOROD,

Situated to the east of the government of St. Petersburg, is a large province, subdivided into five districts. It is called Novogorod Veliki, or superior, to distinguish it from the inferior, or Niso-Novogorod. The chief produce is corn, flax, hemp, wax, honey, and leather. The only place of note is

Novgorod, or *Novogorod*, one of the most ancient cities in Russia, situated on the northern coast of the lake Ihnen. It was formerly a large and populous place, and the great mart of commerce between Russia and the Hanseatic cities. Its dominions were so extended, its power so great, and its situation so impregnable, that it gave rise to a proverb, "Who can resist the Gods and Great Novogorod?" But in 1477 it was obliged to submit to the arms of Ivan Vassilivitch I. grand-duke of Russia. An enormous bell, called by the inhabitants *eternal*, and revered by them as the palladium of their liberty, was removed by their conqueror from hence to Moscow. It continued, however, the largest and most commercial city in Russia; and, at one time, is said to have contained upwards of 400,000 inhabitants. It was first desolated, in a manner, by the cruelties exercised here by Ivan II. in 1570; but its splendour was not totally eclipsed till the building of Petersburg, to which favourite capital Peter the Great removed all the commerce of the Baltic, which, before, was centred here. It now scarcely contains 7000 souls; but a great number of churches and convents remain melancholy monuments of its original splendour. This city stands on both sides of the navigable river Volchiva, which flows into lake Ladoga, over which there is a large bridge. The cathedral of St. Sophia is large and beautiful, though in the antique style of building, in the

cemetery of which several of the ducal family of Russia are interred. Novgorod lies 92 miles S. S. E. of St. Petersburg; it is an archbishopric of the Greek church.

PSKOV,

To the S. W. of Novgorod, was formerly a republic, after which it had the title of a duchy. It was at length subdued by Ivan Basilowitz, in 1509. It has a lake of its name, which lies on the confines of the governments of Revel and Riga.

Pskov, the capital, is seated at the mouth of the river Muldow, on the right hand of the lake of its name. It is divided into four wards or quarters, each of which is encompassed with its own walls; and the whole is defended by a stout castle, built on a high rock. It is a Russian archiepiscopal see, and a very populous city. The other cities of this territory are inconsiderable.

TVER, OR TWER,

Situated to the east of the last-mentioned, was once an independent sovereignty, called the Duchy of Tver, and was afterwards comprised in the government of Novgorod; but was ultimately formed into a distinct province by the Empress Catharine: since which time the population has greatly increased. The chief places are,

1. *Tver*, a handsome city, situated at the confluence of the Tversa and Wolga; which last river, at this place, is so wide, that persons are obliged to cross it in ferry boats, and along it are conveyed all the goods sent by water from Siberia and the southern provinces to Petersburg. The city is divided into two parts, called the Old and the New Towns: the former, seated on the right banks of the Wolga, is solely composed of wooden buildings; while the latter, having been destroyed by a dreadful fire in 1713, has, through the spirited endeavours of the late Empress Catharine, become one of the most flourishing cities in the empire. She ordered a regular and beautiful plan of a new town to be made, and commanded that all the houses should be built after that model. At her own expence she constructed the governor's house, the episcopal palace, the courts of justice, the exchange, the prison, and several churches, and other public edifices. To every person who engaged to build a house of brick, she offered the loan of £300 for one year without interest: and it is remarkable that, in a short space of time, she expended upwards of £60,000 in this way, half of which she afterwards remitted. The streets are wide and of considerable length, issuing in

straight lines from an octagon in the centre. The houses are of brick, stuccoed white, and have a magnificent appearance. The plan, when complete, is to comprise two octagons, with several streets leading from them, and intersecting each other at right angles. A considerable part of this plan has been carried into execution; and in 1805, we find this city estimated to contain near 20,000 inhabitants. Here is an ecclesiastical seminary, which admits 600 students; and a school was founded by Catharine, in 1775, for the instruction of 200 burghers' children. In 1779 an academy was opened for educating the sons of the nobility of the province at the public charge; it admits 120 students, who are instructed in all the branches of polite learning and science. Twer is 99 miles N. N. W. of Moscow.

2. *Toræe*, or *Terzæe*, situated about 20 miles to the north of Tver, on the river Tversa, is a considerable town, having a great trade.

SMOLENSK,

Situated S. W. of Tver, comprehends that part of this empire formerly called White Russia. It has been alternately subdued by the Poles and Russians, and at length was finally ceded to the latter by treaty, towards the conclusion of the 17th century. It is watered by the Dnieper, or Boristhenes. The land is in general sterile; but its people trade in skins of the wild beasts with which it abounds.

Smolensk, the capital, is agreeably situated on the banks of the Dnieper, near the confines of Lithuania. It is large and well fortified, being surrounded with walls 30 feet high, and 15 thick. The lower part of them is built of stone, the upper of brick; and the circumference is 4 miles and three-quarters, surrounded by a deep ditch and covered way. The houses are chiefly of wood, and only one story high. Notwithstanding its extent, it contains only about 4000 inhabitants, and has no proper manufactures. It has a citadel and garrison; was once a metropolis, and is now a bishop's see. The surrounding woods are said to produce the best firs in the Russian dominions.

KALUGA,

Seated to the S. W. of the last-mentioned province, has some manufactures of coarse linen, and abounds in timber, flax, hemp, honey, wax, hides, leather, furs, hogs' bristles, &c. The chief town,

Kaluga, is finely situated on the river Ocea, one of the largest branches of the Wolga. It is a place of some trade, but contains nothing worthy of particular observation.

MOSKVA, MOSQUA, OR MOSCOW,

Situated to the east of the two last-mentioned governments. It was formerly called the grand duchy of Moscow, in order to distinguish it from the great empire of Muscovy, of which it was the principal province; and because, for a long time, the princes of it took upon themselves only the title of dukes. It has its name from its capital, and that from the river of the same name, on which it is situated. The chief place is

Moskva, *Mosqua*, or *Moscow*, the greatest city in the whole Russian empire, is seated in a fine spacious plain, on the river of its name, over which is a stately bridge of twelve arches, of a prodigious height and breadth, because the river often overflows. It was built by prince Gafischin, from the design of a Polish monk. The town stands in a gravelly soil and wholesome air, nearly in the centre of the best provinces of the empire. The streets are not regular; but the whole city presents a very picturesque appearance, containing such a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and streams, that it seems rather to be a cultivated country, than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not attested by the most unquestionable authors; but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated state of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater lustre in a traveller's eye. Buschin speaks of it as the largest city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on, computed to be sixteen miles in circumference. It is generally admitted that Moscow contains 1600 churches and convents, and 43 places or squares. The merchants' exchange, according to Buschin, contains about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city exhibits a greater contrast of magnificence and meanness in building than Moscow. The houses of the inhabitants in general are miserable timber-booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are spacious and lofty. The Kremlin, which is the central and highest part of the city, is surrounded by high walls of stone and brick, two miles in circumference, and contains the old imperial palace, pleasure-house, and stables, a victualling-house, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish-churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt or covered with silver: the architecture is in the Gothic taste; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the saints are

are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. The cathedral has nine towers, covered with copper, double-gilt, and contains a silver branch with 48 lights, said to weigh 2800 lbs. together with sumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars. They have a barbarous anecdote, that the czar John Basilides ordered the architect of this church to be deprived of his eye-sight, that he might never contrive its equal. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the Virgin Mary, in this cathedral, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what was seen at the famous Holy House of Loretto in Italy. M. Voltaire says, "that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moscow at the time he was building Petersburg; for he caused it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures."

The foundling-hospital at Moscow is an excellent institution, under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the late empress, and is supported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and charitable endowments. It is an immense building, of a quadrangular shape, and contains 3000 foundlings.

The czar Peter I. founded here three colleges, which he filled with men well versed in arts and sciences, and all kinds of literature. He added a dispensary, which is not only one of the finest structures in Moscow, but one of the best furnished with all sorts of medicines, drugs, &c. in Europe. This dispensary has a yearly revenue of 20,000 rubles to renew their *materia medica*; and furnishes not only the army, but likewise all the principal cities in the empire with medicines.

The city of Moscow is much decayed from its ancient grandeur and opulence, since the removal of the court to Petersburg. However, it is still full of inhabitants: and provisions are plentiful and cheap; fish being the only dear food, occasioned by the number of fasts observed by the Russians. This cheapness has so far lowered the price of land all about the country, that the nobility and gentry are great sufferers by it, their estates being reduced to little more than one-third of what they formerly brought in, when the city was in its flourishing state. The canal, made by the order and direction of the late Peter the Great, to open a communication between Moscow and Petersburg, greatly enriches the city by the vast quantities of merchandise brought to and from that capital.

Here is a very considerable manufacture of various hemp fabrics, particularly sail-cloth and sheeting, which employs a vast number of looms, and many thousands of people.

M. Reinbeck, who was here in 1805, has furnished us with the following interesting remarks on this great city. "There have," says he, "lately been formed here, according to the plan of those at St. Petersburg, *boulevards*, as they are called, which are walks for foot-passengers in the middle of the broadest streets, and planted with trees. The length of four such walks, which follow each other with some intervals, is about eight versts, or six English miles; but the dust checks the growth and vegetation of the trees.

"The time of my stay in Moscow being in the finest summer months, the number of people in that city had diminished at least 100,000; for the nobility and people of fortune retire during the hot weather to their seats and country-houses. According to the most moderate computation, the population, therefore, in summer amounts to 300,000, and in winter to 400,000; but this number is undoubtedly too small. People of high rank constantly drive with six horses to their carriage; but in the time of Paul the practice was on the decline, in consequence of the example set by the monarch himself, who likewise wished to diminish the enormous herds of useless and lazy idlers and retainers in the houses of the higher and middling orders of nobility. Alexander, in this respect, likewise sets his nobles an excellent example: for he and his empress have not to their carriage more than four horses, and their attendants are always few in number. Staff-officers, as well as people of an equal rank in the civil service, are allowed to have four horses; and accordingly all those who can possibly afford it, and even many who cannot, make use of this privilege. The citizens should be drawn by only two horses; but in Moscow, a man of business would make but little progress with two horses; and consequently it may not be considered to proceed merely from vanity, as is generally the case in Petersburg, when the rich citizen has likewise four put to his carriage.

"The number of houses in Moscow is estimated at 20,000; and for each house may, on an average, be reckoned a carriage with two horses: besides which, there are at least from 6000 to 7000 carriers' waggons and *droshkins*. Here, as well as in Petersburg, the provisions are brought to the houses by the dealers, or conveyed about for sale in carts. Every morning, but particularly on market-days, crowds of people, perhaps to the number of 50,000, throng from the neighbouring villages into the town with their goods, the majority of them in carts, the remainder on foot. What with the loud and hoarse cries of those who vend the articles; the singing of the *ishvossicks*, or drivers; the clamour

clamour before and in the inns and public-houses ; the fiddling, piping, and organ-playing in the dancing-rooms ; the rumbling of the carriages ; the ringing of innumerable bells, of which a single tower or steeple has sometimes more than twenty ; and at intervals the drums and martial music of the numerous garrison—a stranger is absolutely stunned and stupified in the first week of his residence.

“ The physiognomy of Moscow totally differs from that of other cities. The national character has been far less altered by the intermixture of foreign manners and customs, than is the case in St. Petersburg ; and the old oriental and substantial style of luxury and magnificence are much more prevalent here than at the capital. The opulence of Moscow in gold and silver, rich stuffs, and genuine pearls and diamonds, must be enormous ; for all these superfluities are considered as articles of necessity, even by the middling classes, and the people of fashion have abundance of them ; the lady of a private nobleman, even of no high rank, frequently possessing much more property of this kind than many of the more opulent German princesses. Dress and every other thing seems calculated for show ; but particularly the luxury of horses and carriages. The latter are very tasty, but they are not built in a durable manner ; and as for the *droschks*, or drivers, Moscow has always been famous for them. Even the emperor has them from hence for his service. The eye of the stranger is here less frequently offended by seeing wretched hacks drawing a splendid coach : he is more likely to meet with the most beautiful horses to an old-fashioned carriage. As most of the proprietors of estates in the neighbourhood of Moscow, and particularly in the Ukraine, have fine studs, it is easy to conceive whence this large and most beautiful breed is obtained.

Mental culture is certainly at a much lower ebb here than at St. Petersburg ; though some of the great men form an honourable exception. As to refinement of manners, it is to be found only in the houses of high rank and of foreigners. Among ten persons we do not expect to meet with more than one that is sober ; and he frequently would prove to be only half so. Public morals are of course but at a low ebb. But, notwithstanding the unbridled licentiousness of the populace, which seems to be universally sanctioned or permitted in Russia, in spite of the conflux of the dregs of the people from all quarters, public security is preserved to an admirable extent ; infinitely more than at Petersburg. Robberies are indeed committed in the neighbourhood of the city ; but even these are, comparatively speaking, very rare.”

It has always been deemed a meritorious act of religion here, to present a church with bells ; and the piety of the donor has been measured by their magnitude. Besides the great bell removed hither from Novgorod, Boris Godnuf gave one which weighed 288,000lbs. to the cathedral here, which designated him as the most pious sovereign Russia ever had ; but he was surpassed by the empress Anne, who presented another to the same fabric, weighing 432,000 lbs. which is the largest in the known world. As the river Moskva is only navigable in the spring and summer months, during the other parts of the year the principal merchandise is conveyed here on sledges from the Wolga. This city is 460 miles south-east of Petersburg, and 1200 N. by E. of Constantinople.

VLADIMER, OR VOLODIMER,

Situated to the N. W. of the province of Moskva, abounds with honey, and has some fens and forests ; but in many parts is fertile, and well watered.

Volodimer, the capital, is situated on a fine hill, which is beautifully diversified with plantations. It was built by Prince Volodimer, in the beginning of the tenth century ; and here he and his successors resided till the court was removed to Moscow, since which period its splendour has gradually decayed.

YAROSLAOL,

To the north of the province last-mentioned, comprises that part of Russia formerly called the Duchy of Rostov, which is a rich and plentiful country, and was formerly the first duchy in all Russia, next to that of Novgorod. It was governed by its own dukes, till the czar Ivan Basilowitz put the last of them to death, and seized on this territory, A. D. 1564. The chief places are,

1. *Yaroslavl*, the capital, seated at the confluence of the Kotorosl with the Wolga, is a large and populous city, noted chiefly on account of its manufacture of Russia leather, in which and other commodities it carries on a great trade ; being most advantageously situated for becoming a great commercial town. Several of the houses are of brick, stuccoed ; and the whole is rapidly improving. It is 140 miles N. N. E. of Moskva.

2. *Rostov*, formerly one of the most considerable places in this quarter of the empire, but now is greatly gone to decay.

VOLOGDA,

A very extensive government, situated to the N. W. of Yaroslavl, and extending to the southward

ward of the province of Archangel, quite across the whole empire, to the Uralian Mountains. It is extremely woody, mountainous, full of lakes and fens, and abounds in fish and game, but is destitute of most other kinds of provisions.

Vologda, the capital of this province, situated on both sides of the river of the same name, is a capacious, populous, and commercial place, as, besides natives, many English, Dutch, and other merchants reside in it. This city is one of the most ancient Russian archiepiscopal sees, situate nearly 230 miles to the northward of Moscow, surrounded by a stone wall, and defended by a strong fortress. The streets are open and regular, the houses handsome, and the markets well furnished, every commodity being sold in a particular quarter. The river is broad and navigable, and the cathedral magnificent; besides which, there are twenty stone and forty-three wooden churches, three nunneries, with an elegant chapel appertaining to each, &c. It contains about 1700 houses, and 10,000 inhabitants, and is situated 308 miles east of Petersburg.

KOSTROMA,

To the south of Vologda, and the east of Yaroslavl, is rich and fertile, being watered by the Wolga, which runs majestically through the whole province, and is navigable throughout.

Kostroma, the capital, is situated on a river of the same name, at its junction with the Wolga, by which it carries on a great trade with the neighbouring provinces in malt, leather, tallow, honey, caveare, timber, &c. It is tolerably well built; and, like most other towns on this famous river, rapidly increasing.

VYOTKA, OR VYATKA,

Situated to the east of the last mentioned, is tolerably fertile and productive; but, owing to its great distance from Moscow and Petersburg, it has not the same advantages as those countries previously described; neither is it so well cultivated. A considerable part of the eastern division of this government is inhabited by the Votiaks, a wandering race of people, of peculiar manners and habits.

Vyotka, the capital, is situated on a considerable river of the same name, which is one of the largest branches of the Wolga. Its situation renders it of great consequence as a commercial depôt for the various products of the province, which are here deposited, and forwarded to all parts of the empire.

PERM,

Situated to the north-east of the last mentioned, lies for a considerable length along the Uralian

chain of mountains, which divides Europe from Asia. The face of the country is mountainous and rugged; but, within the last 60 years, it has been greatly improved.

Perm, the capital, is very advantageously situated for trade on the river Kama, which is here a very considerable stream. It contains nothing worthy particular notice.

KAZAN,

Situated to the S. W. of Perm, is a fine province, through which the Wolga passes, and where it is joined by several of its principal tributary streams, some of which are as large as the other chief rivers of Europe. It abounds in all the necessaries of life. The chief place,

Kazan, which is a considerable city, situated at the junction of a small river with the Wolga, contains several churches, almost all of which are built of stone; but the houses, and even the ramparts and towers, are constructed with wood. The castle, however, is of stone; and the river, by surrounding it, forms an excellent fosse; the whole is amply furnished with artillery, ammunition, &c. and well secured by a Russian garrison. The streets are wide and regular; and there are said to be no less than 11 convents in and near the town. The trade of this place is very considerable: large quantities of Russia leather, bark for tanning, timber for ship-building, &c. are annually sent hence to Petersburg and other parts of Russia.

NISNEY NOVGOROD,

To the west of the last-mentioned, is so called to distinguish it from the government of Novgorod Veliki, or Great Novgorod; the word *nisney* implying *little*. It is watered by the Wolga and Occa, and abounds with forests, but is nevertheless pleasant, populous, and fertile. The capital,

Nisi Novogorod, is situated on a rock, at the confluence of the Wolga and Occa, surrounded by a stone wall, and defended by a strong citadel. By the river-side, and before the stately gate of the city called Iwanofski, there is a spacious market-place. A noble street, intersected by others, runs through the whole town. The cathedral, which is built after the model of Santa Sophia, at Constantinople, is a stately edifice, has five cupolas beautifully varnished with green, and adorned at the top with elegant crosses. The superb archiepiscopal palace is near the cathedral, but contains a church within its own walls. The governor's palace, and the chancery, are noble fabrics; and the houses in general are well-built of timber. The city itself is small, but the suburbs are large; and the whole has a good trade,

trade, and is well furnished with provisions. The luxuries, as well as the necessaries, of life, are remarkably cheap: but the inhabitants in general, women as well as men, are shamefully addicted to intoxication.

RIAZAN, OR REZAN,

Situated to the S. W. of the last-mentioned, was formerly much more extensive than at present, including a vast extent of territory, between the Don and the Occa, now subdivided into four provinces. It was formerly governed by its own dukes, who were very powerful.

Riazan, the capital, was formerly a fair, large, and populous city, and advantageously situated on the Occa. It is chiefly famed for the noble resistance which it made against the Tartars, in 1570, by which the whole empire was preserved from their fury, though the city itself, and almost the whole duchy, were destroyed by them. All that the ancient Rezan now retains of its former grandeur, is the archiepiscopal see, and its being still the residence of the metropolitan.

TOULA,

To the south-west of the last-mentioned, formerly composed a part of that extensive government.

Toula, the capital, situated on a branch of the Occa, has been a place of some note since it became the residence of the governor of a province.

OREL,

South-west of Toula, is a fertile country, abounding in all the necessaries of life. It is intersected by numerous rivers, which add greatly to its fertility.

Orel, the chief town, situated near the source of the Occa, is an inconsiderable place, chiefly constructed with timber, stuccoed.

KOURSK,

Situated directly south of Orel, is a very fertile province, producing abundance of corn, honey, flax, hemp, &c.

Koursk, the capital, seated on the river Sem, a branch of the Don, has, since this province was formed, become a place of some importance. The houses are neat, those of modern erection being of brick. It stands 240 miles south of Moscow.

SIEVERSKOV,

To the west of the last-mentioned, had formerly princes of its own, till the country was subdued by the czar Basilowitz. It afterwards fell into the hands of Sigismund III. king of Poland, who incorporated it with his own domi-

nions; but it was at length finally ceded to Russia, as a member of the ancient palatinate of Smolensk. This province being watered by the rivers Ubie, Dozina, and Nevin, is fertile and populous, yet woody. In the southern part there is one vast extensive forest, which is computed to be 100 miles square. It is one of the most fertile provinces in the empire, abounding in all the necessaries, and many of the luxuries, of life.

Novgorod Sieverskov, situated on one of the principal branches of the Don, 264 miles S. S. W. of Moscow, is a considerable town, having a great trade with the southern provinces in the products of the circumjacent country.

TCHERNIGOV,

Situated to the S. W. of Sieverskov, is a fertile province, formerly comprised in the large government of the Ukraine. This country is represented as being one continued fertile plain, producing corn, pulse, tobacco, and honey.

Tchernigov, situated on the right shore of the river Desna, one of the tributaries of the Don. It is principally constructed with timber; and contains nothing worthy particular notice.

KIEF, KIOF, OR KLOW,

To the south of the province last-mentioned, was formerly considered a part of Poland. It was under the government of its own dukes till the middle of the 12th century, when it was annexed to Poland; since which it became a part of Russia, being annexed to the Ukraine. Ultimately it has been formed into a distinct government.

Kiow, the principal town, was formerly considered the capital of the Ukraine. It is situated very advantageously on the Dnieper for commerce, and has a very considerable traffic with the provinces bordering upon the Black Sea. The town is large, but not handsome: it is divided into two parts, called the Old and New Towns, the latter of which is the more regular, and is fast increasing.

KHARKOF, OR CHARSKOV,

To the N. E. of Kief, was originally comprised, with that province, in the Ukraine. It offers nothing worthy of remark.

Kharkof, the capital, situated on the small river Uda, 352 miles south of Moscow. It is but a poor place, unworthy of particular description.

CATHARINOSLAF,

Situated to the south of the province last-mentioned, is a very extensive country, comprising the ancient governments of Asoph, Taurida, the Crimea,

Krimea, and the Don Cossacks. It was formerly inhabited by a wild and uncivilized race of people, who still, in some measure, retain many of their ancient manners and customs; and perhaps no country in the world ever made such rapid advances towards civilization and improvement as this, principally through the instrumentality of the late empress Catharine, who ordered that it should be called *Catharinoslaf*, "the glory of Catharine." It was the scene of many bloody contests between the Turks and Russians, but was finally ceded to the latter in 1772; since which time several towns have been built, and the whole country has been exceedingly improved. The climate and soil vie with the most beautiful and populous parts of Italy; and in a short time, no doubt, it will become one of the most interesting portions of Europe. The chief places in this government are,

1. *Catharinoslaf*, the capital of this province, stands in a most eligible situation for trade, near the centre of the government, on the southern banks of the Dnieper, which is accessible for ships of great burden from the Black Sea (a distance of 200 miles) up to this city, which is but of recent origin, having been almost entirely built since 1772, when this province was first formed. The city is not yet very extensive; but the houses are built with free-stone, upon a regular plan; and the public buildings have been erected at the expence of the state, in a very elegant and substantial manner.

2. *New Odessa*, situated on a small gulf on the Black Sea, between the rivers Dnieper and Dniester, is of late years become a large and important sea-port. In 1805 this town contained a population of 10,000 persons; and it has since greatly increased. The houses are neatly built of free-stone, upon a regular plan; the streets are wide and spacious, but, at the period above mentioned, remained unpaved. The town is fortified; has a capacious and secure harbour, and a mole, or quay, extending about a quarter of a mile into the sea, and susceptible of being converted to the most useful purposes, along which are several ranges of extensive warehouses. Here are two neat theatres, with other places of public amusement; this thriving town being now much visited by the nobles and gentry during the summer, for the benefit of sea-bathing. The chief exports from this place are wheat and other grain, with which upwards of 1000 ships have been loaded in a single season. Ten years ago this town was scarcely known as a place of trade; but it is now frequented by merchants from all nations of Europe. Among the natural

disadvantages of this place, must be noticed the barrenness and want of fuel in its immediate vicinity, and the dangerous navigation of the Black Sea, from currents and want of sea room. Odessa lies nearly 1000 miles south of St. Petersburg*.

3. *Kherson*, a considerable sea-port, lately erected, on the banks of the Dnieper, about 50 miles above its estuary into the Black Sea. Its situation for trade is excellent, being expressly chosen by the empress Catharine, as a proper spot on which to erect a port, which should become the principal mart for foreign trade in this part of her dominions. It is not yet very large; but the houses are all built of stone, and neatly executed. Here are several docks for the construction of large vessels, from which several are annually launched. The public buildings are all executed under the superintendence, and at the expence of the state, which employs in these works a number of criminals. The principal fuel here is reeds, of which there are an immense number in the shallows of the river, near the town. They are so tall and strong, that even rails and temporary houses are built of them. In this city the philanthropic John Howard, Esq. ended his days: to the last he was engaged in the merciful employment of visiting those who were sick and in prison.

4. *Otchakov*, or *Oczakow*, a very strong town, seated on the western banks of the Dnieper, where it enters the Black Sea, nearly 1000 miles S.S.W. of Petersburg. It formerly belonged to the Turks; but, after much contention, was, about 20 years ago, finally given up to Russia; to which country it must be an important acquisition, as it fully commands the navigation of the Dnieper, having the fortress of Kinburn on the opposite side of the river. Of late years this town has greatly increased, being the rendezvous of the Russian ships of war navigating the Black Sea.

5. *Azov*, or *Asoph*, formerly the chief city in all this quarter, is situated near the mouth of the river Don, near its entrance into the sea of Azov. Owing to the mouth of the channel upon which this town is situated being choaked up with sand, this city has gone greatly to decay.

6. *Taganrok*, a very considerable town, situated on the northern coast of the sea of Azov, has risen into consequence on the decline of the last-mentioned city. It is the centre of the trade of the extensive river Don, the produce of the interior being sent hither (where extensive ranges of warehouses have been erected) for exportation. By an accurate account, published in 1793

* Macgill's Travels in Turkey, Italy, and Russia, vol. i. p. 259.

by order of the Russian government, it appears that this town was, in point of commercial consequence, the fourth in the empire, being only exceeded in the amount of its exports and imports by Petersburg, Riga, and Archangel. The houses of this town are tolerably well-built; and the streets are spacious and regularly laid out. It stands nearly 1000 miles S. E. from Petersburg.

7. *Perekop*, or *Prekop*, situated on the isthmus, which joins the Crimea to the rest of Europe, is a very important place, and well fortified. The only entrance into the Crimea by land, is over a bridge, and through an arched stone gate-way, both erected at the side of the fortress. The town formerly consisted of a few irregular buildings, situated to the south of the fort; but at present the place so called stands full 3 miles in the country, and has greatly increased since 1797.

8. *Theodosia*, or *Kaffa*, the capital of the Crimea, situated on the south-eastern coast of the peninsula, is a most ancient city, the *Theodosia* of the Romans. After it was possessed by the Turks, they changed its name to *Kaifa*; but its ancient name has been restored by the late empress Catharine. From 1246 to 1474 it was possessed by the Genoese, when its commerce is said to have exceeded that of Constantinople itself. From 1474 till about 40 years ago, it went to decay; but, under the auspices of Russia, it has again began to flourish. Many of the houses are modern, intermixed with ancient erections. The number of inhabitants in 1795 was estimated at 6000; but since that time they are greatly increased. The inhabitants of the Crimea, exclusive of those of the principal towns, are of Tartar origin; and in general, like the other Tartars, live a wandering life, or are chiefly engaged in agriculture. The northern part of this peninsula is bare, and only fit for pasturage; but the south, which is separated from the north by a ridge of mountains running from west to east, is extremely productive of all kinds of grain and fruits. The introduction of public schools and other improvements will, no doubt, ultimately render this an interesting portion of the empire. The other principal towns are *Eupatorea*, *Sebastopol*, &c.

VERONETZ,

To the north of the last-mentioned, is a very fertile province, being greatly fructified by the Don and its tributary streams, which intersect the whole of it. It abounds in all kinds of grain, flax, hemp, honey, &c. which, by means of the Don, are forwarded to the various parts of the Black Sea, and from thence to all parts of the Mediterranean. The chief places are,

1. *Veronetz*, or *Veronis*, the capital, is a considerable place, on account of the great ships of war built there under the direction and inspection of the czar, Peter the Great; it is situated on a small river of its own name, which falls into the Don a little below it, and is deep enough to carry them into the great river, and thence down to the Black Sea, to which that prince opened himself a free passage, by the taking of Asoph.

The town is situated on a hill, surrounded with a wooden wall, almost rotten. It is divided into three parts; one of which, called *Jakatoff*, is the common residence of the Russian merchants. It has large and extensive rope-walks, and a spacious subterranean magazine of powder without the walls. On the declivity of the hill, and along the water-side, are several spacious houses, some of them four hundred paces long, which belong to the Russian admirals, vice-admirals, and persons of rank. Most of them stand facing the citadel, and behind them are streets for those employed in ship-building. The city stands on the west side of the *Veronis*, and the citadel on the other; and a large bridge is built over it for communication.

The citadel is a large square building, flanked with a tower on each corner, has large apartments in it, and makes a great figure without. It is surrounded with strong pallisadoes, and a ditch, and is defended by a strong garrison. This is the chief magazine in this part of Russia, in which there are about 150 cannon, mostly unmounted for speedy carriage, conveniences for ship-building, and apartments three stories high, for all manner of naval stores. Here are some handsome churches after the Russian taste; and at a small distance from the town may be seen a high mountain, almost mouldered away, and full of cracks, on which are some ancient monuments.

2. *Taverhoff* was built by Peter the Great, on the south banks of the river *Veronis*, and two-thirds of the town are washed by that river and the Don. The place is very unhealthy, on account of the circumjacent low flat grounds being covered either with wood or water. This town is regularly built, with streets intersecting each other at right angles; but the houses are of wood, as is a palace which stands at the west end. The citadel is made of earthen ramparts, pallisadoed with bastions at the corners, mounted with cannon. *Taverhoff* is inhabited principally by sailors and fishermen; and what is very singular, 3000 soldiers, who are the garrison, and appointed to defend the place, do not reside in the town, but dwell altogether in a neighbouring village.

TAMBOV,

Situated to the north-east of the before-mentioned, is an extensive tract of country between the Don and Occa rivers. It is not so populous, or well cultivated as some of the provinces, and contains several extensive forests.

Tambov, the capital, situated on the river Sna, is but an inconsiderable place, chiefly constructed with timber. It contains nothing worthy of particular description.

PENZA,

Situated to the north-east of Tambov, is a fertile province, watered by several of the tributary streams of the Wolga. The face of the country is similar to the province last-mentioned; and here are also extensive woods.

Penza, the principal town, situated on the Soura river, is a small town, from whence considerable quantities of flax and timber are floated down to the Wolga. The houses are mostly built of wood, as are all the public buildings.

SIMBIRSK,

To the east of the last-mentioned, is a fine province, through which the Wolga flows from north to south, adding considerably to the fertility of the soil, as well as the commercial consequence of the government.

Simbirsk, the capital, is a very considerable town, situated upon the left bank of the Wolga, 330 miles E.S.E. of Moscow. Its eligible commercial situation naturally renders it a place of great trade; being one of the principal rendezvous for vessels navigating between the Baltic and Caspian Seas. The houses, which are partly of timber, and partly of free-stone, are neatly built; and their number is daily increasing.

SARATOF, OR SARATOV,

To the south-west of Simbirsk, is a very fruitful country, being watered by the great rivers Don and Wolga, and their almost innumerable contributory streams. This government was formerly comprised in that of Astrachan.

Saratof, the chief town, is principally indebted for its present flourishing commerce to its advantageous situation on the Wolga, 392 miles south-east of Moscow. The houses are tolerably built, and the streets well laid out. This place is a great depôt for the commodities both of the northern and southern provinces, which are here warehoused till proper opportunities offer for their conveyance to Petersburg, Astrachan, or the other places of their destination.

RUSSIAN LAPLAND.

The three remaining provinces comprehended in what is generally termed European Russia, are comprised in Russian Lapland, of which we have already presented a general description, as to the country, inhabitants, customs, manners, &c. in our account of LAPLAND. It now only remains to give a brief geographical outline of that part which is distinguished by the appellation of Russian Lapland.

It is bounded on the north by the Northern Ocean, on the east and south by the White Sea, and on the west by Danish Lapland. It is divided into three parts, according to their situation; one is called LEPORIA MOUREMANSKOI, or Maritime Leporia; TERRSKOI, or Inland Leporia; and BELLAMOURESKOI LEPORIA, or Southern Lapland.

LEPORIA MOUREMANSKOI

Is barren, woody, and mountainous; the air extremely cold; the inhabitants rude and ignorant; and, in general, the country is much like Swedish and Danish Lapland. Most of the towns stand on the sea-coasts. There are in some of them ancient monasteries; and the rivers contiguous abound with fish, and particularly salmon.

Kola, the capital of this division, and of all Russian Lapland, has a good harbour upon the river of the same name, near its estuary into the Frozen Ocean, where there is a considerable fishery for whales, sea-dogs, and other fish, which the inhabitants cure for sale. The houses are meanly built of timber, and in a very straggling manner.

TERRSKOI LEPORIA,

Or the inland part of Russian Lapland, is almost surrounded with the sea, and is the land that makes the gulf of the White Sea. It is equally woody and barren as the rest. The chief town is *Warsiga*, situated on the south coast, over against Archangel, with which city it has some traffic in skins and other produce of the country.

BELLAMOURESKOI LEPORIA

Lies at the bottom of the above-mentioned gulf, called the White Sea, and, like the rest, is cold, barren, and thinly inhabited. The chief town, *Soma*, situated at the entrance into Russian Lapland, on the White Sea, is chiefly built with wood, and is but a mean inconsiderable place.

RUSSIAN POLAND.

Besides the provinces already enumerated, which have for a number of years composed the Russian empire, the description of this vast country would be incomplete, if we were not here to introduce a delineation of the provinces which have, at various times, been acquired from Poland, and which, since the treaty of Tilsit, comprehend the whole of LITHUANIA, extending upwards of 300 miles in length, and 250 in breadth. It was formerly governed by its own dukes, but afterwards united with the kingdom of Poland, which annexation was formally ratified by the diet held at Wilna in 1401; and in 1561 the two countries were so united as to form only one kingdom under one prince. In 1772 the Empress Catharine of Russia forcibly compelled the Poles to cede to her all that part of Lithuania bordering upon Russia; and at the final partition of the kingdom of Poland in 1795, nearly the whole of this duchy was possessed by Russia; and the remainder, at that time under the dominion of Prussia, was, in 1809, for ever given up to Russia by the treaty of Tilsit.

Lithuania was formerly divided into nine palatinates, but now comprises the six following governments:

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
VILNA, OR WILNO . . .	<i>Vilna, Grodno.</i>
MINSK	<i>Minski.</i>
SLONYM	<i>Slonym.</i>
VOLKYNIA	<i>Lucko.</i>
PODOLIA	<i>Kamineek.</i>
BRATZLAW	<i>Bratzlaw.</i>

No correct or authentic account of the particular situation, extent, &c. of these governments having yet appeared, we are precluded from presenting such information to our readers. But it will not be improper, in a general view, to state, that this country is bounded on the east and south by Russia; on the north by Prussia, and the Baltic; and on the west, by the river Niemen, which divides it from Prussia, the river Bug, which separates it from the duchy of Warsaw, and the Dniester, which is the boundary between this country and Turkey. The chief places are the following.

1. *Vilna, or Wilno*, the capital of the whole country, is a very considerable city, seated in a mountainous country on several small eminences on both sides of the river Vilna, 215 miles N. E. of Warsaw. The houses are chiefly built of timber; and hence the town has frequently suffered much from the ravages of fire. It has an ancient university, and upwards of 40 churches, all of which are of the Roman Catholic persua-

sion, except one Lutheran, a Calvinistic, and a Greek church. There are also a Tartarian church and a Jews' synagogue. The trade of this place would be inconsiderable, were it not for its great annual fairs, which are much frequented.

2. *Grodno, or Grodna*, is another large city, situated upon the Niemen. It is a long straggling town, containing a mixture of houses little better than cottages, some habitations in good repair, and ruined palaces with magnificent gateways and other decayed remains of ancient splendour. A wing yet remains of the old castle where the diets of Lithuania formerly assembled. Here are a college and botanical garden, together with a royal academy of medicine and surgery, established by Stanislaus, the last king of Poland. The number of inhabitants in this city has recently been estimated at 7000, many of whom are employed in the manufacture of linen, woollen, cotton, and silk.

The other towns throughout the whole of this extensive country are numerous, but wholly unimportant, being chiefly built of wood, in a very loose and straggling manner.

SECTION II.

General Observations on the Climate and Seasons—Soil—Face of the Country—Agriculture—Mountains—Forests—Rivers—Canals—Lakes—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Natural Curiosities—Antiquities, &c. &c. of Russia.

Climate and Seasons.—THE climate of this extensive country, which is calculated to include a seventh part of Europe, as may be expected in such a diversity of latitudes, presents almost every variety, from that of Lapland to that of Italy. But winter is the general season at Petersburg; and the Neva is annually frozen from November to March or April. Euler has even observed that, at Petersburg, only two months in the year may be expected to be free from snow: and the climate around the Frozen Ocean is still more severe, being encompassed with mountains of ice, and the sun not being visible from the middle of October till February, while it never sets during June and July.

Dr. John Glen King, who resided 11 years in Russia, observes, that the cold in St. Petersburg, by Fahrenheit's scale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, usually from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower. The same writer remarks, that it is very difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold so great. It is such, that, when a person walks out in that severe weather, the

the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-lashes. As the common peasants usually wear their beards, you may see them hanging at the chin like a solid lump of ice. The beard is therefore found very useful in protecting the glands of the throat. All the parts of the face which are exposed are very liable to be frozen; though it has often been observed, that the person himself does not know when the freezing begins, but is commonly told of it first by those who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with snow, the usual method to thaw it. It is also remarked, that the part which has been once frozen is ever after most liable to be frozen again. In some very severe winters, sparrows, though a hardy species of birds, have been seen quite numbed by the intense cold, and unable to fly; and drivers, when sitting on their loaded carriages, have sometimes been found frozen to death in that posture. Boiling water, thrown up into the air by an engine, so as to spread, has fallen down perfectly formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a solid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of strong ale has also been frozen in an hour and a half; but in this substance there was about a tea-cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as strong and inflammable as brandy and spirits of wine. Notwithstanding, however, the severity of the cold in Russia, the inhabitants have such various means and provisions to guard against it, that they suffer much less from it than might be expected. The houses of persons in tolerable circumstances are so well protected, both without doors and within, that they are seldom heard to complain of cold.

The method of warming the houses in Russia is by an oven constructed with several flues; and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. These ovens consume a much smaller quantity of wood than might be imagined; and yet they serve for the ordinary people to dress their food. They put a very moderate-sized faggot into them, and suffer it to burn only till the thickest black smoke is evaporated; they then shut down the chimney, to retain all the rest of the heat in the chamber. By this method the chamber keeps its heat for the space of twenty-four hours, and is commonly so warm that they sit with very little covering, especially children, who are usually in their shirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very small, that as little cold may be admitted as possible; and in the houses of persons of condition, the windows are caulked up against winter, and commonly have double glass-frames. In short, they can regulate the warmth in their apart-

ments by a thermometer with great exactness, opening or shutting the flues to increase or diminish the heat. When the Russians go out, they are clothed so warmly, that they almost bid defiance to frost and snow; and it is observable that the wind is seldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

The Russians derive a great advantage from the severity of their climate, namely, the preserving of provisions by the frost. As soon as the frost sets in, about the end of October, the women kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs, packed up with a layer of snow between them, taking them out for use as occasion requires; by which means they save the nourishment of the animal for several months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Petersburg, is esteemed the finest they have; nor can it be distinguished from what is fresh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Petersburg are by this means supplied in winter with all manner of provisions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwise be possible; and it is curious to see the vast stacks of whole hogs, sheep, fish, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for sale. The method of thawing frozen provisions is by immersing them in cold water; for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it occasions a violent fermentation, and almost a sudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice seems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a transparent incrustation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as fresh as if just gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire, or hot water, it becomes so rancid and strong that it cannot be eaten.

In the country around and to the north of St. Petersburg, the *aurora borealis* is very frequent, and its coruscations peculiarly vivid; storms of thunder and lightning are neither violent, numerous, nor lasting; high winds are not predominant; and it seldom hails, though hoar frosts are very common. The summer is, indeed, short in these parts; but in most of them it is so warm, and the days are so long, that the fruits of the earth usually come to maturity sooner than in other places.

The governments which lie in the middle of European Russia and Poland usually enjoy a short and mild winter, and a fine temperate summer; while the southern provinces, bordering upon the Black Sea, have one of the most delightful climates in the universe.

Soil.—The soil of this vast extent of country is, of course, extremely various: that of the northern parts is marshy, and little susceptible of

of cultivation; but the south abounds in rich and fertile plains, consisting of a fine black mould, strongly impregnated with nitre, and so productive, that the fields are never manured, but, on the contrary, are apt to swell the grain into too much luxuriance. Pasturage is so abundant, that the meadows are little regarded, and the artificial production of grasses is scarcely ever adopted.

Face of the Country.—In a tract of country so immense, its surface must present a great variety of appearances; but the chief feature of European Russia consists of plains of a prodigious extent, rivalling, in that respect, the vast deserts of Asia and Africa. The chief situation of these extensive *steppes*, or dry and elevated plains, is towards the south, especially in the neighbourhood of the sea of Azof, where there is one continued level, about 400 English miles in length. But though these *steppes* resemble in appearance the sandy deserts of Arabia, they are not so barren of vegetation, exhibiting here and there scattered patches of thin grass, and, at distant intervals, small stunted thickets. They abound with salt lakes, but streams of fresh water are uncommon.

The difficulties of journeying over these vast plains are amply described by Professor Pallas, who went from Petersburg to the Crimea in 1794. The account is, of course, too long for our present purpose; but an idea may be formed of such a wide expanse, when it is stated, that when at a distance from any of the rivers, the party that attended the traveller were obliged to dig wells, before they could procure fresh water for their subsistence. On these barren plains the traveller frequently proceeds the distance of 50 English miles without meeting with a single tree.

Agriculture.—The state of agriculture in European Russia is extremely various. Husbandry is scarcely known in the northern parts of the governments of Olonetz and Archangel; the inhabitants, till lately, supplying the place of bread, as the people of Norway and Lapland do now, with a kind of saw-dust, and a preparation of fish-bones. Peter the Great, and his successors down to the present time, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into these parts of their dominions; and though the soil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vast fertility in the southern provinces bids fair to make grain as common in Russia, as it is in the best cultivated countries of Europe. The easy communication, by means of rivers, which the inland parts of the empire have with each other, serves to supply one province with those products of the earth in which another may abound.

The Russian plough is light and simple, and

scarcely enters the ground to the depth of two inches; but in the southern provinces a heavier kind is used, resembling the German. In what is called the summer field, the corn is sown and reaped in the same year; while in the winter field, the corn is sown in the autumn, and the produce reaped in the ensuing summer. The former yields what is called summer wheat and rye, barley, millet, buck wheat, flax, hemp, peas, &c.; the latter, only wheat and rye: the winter field is commonly left fallow till the following spring. In general, agriculture is conducted with great negligence, yet the harvests are abundant. Even in the neighbourhood of Petersburg are large marshes, which might be easily drained, and converted into fertile land. In the north, rye is most generally cultivated; but in the middle and southern regions, wheat. In the province of Catharinoslaf, the Arnautan wheat is beautiful, the flour yellowish, and the return full fifteen fold. Turkish wheat and maize are not unknown in Taurida. Barley is a general production, being converted into meal, as well as oats, of which a kind of porridge is composed. Rice succeeds well in the southern governments; but potatoes are unaccountably neglected, except in the north, where this invaluable root bears the cold of Archangel, and yields from thirty to fifty fold.

Mountains.—As has been already observed, Russia is, in general, a flat level country, except toward the north-east, where lie the Uralian mountains, which separate Europe from Asia, and are supposed to be the famous *Montes Riphæi* of the ancients, now called the *Girdle of the Earth*. On the western side of the Dnieper we find part of the Carpathian mountains. But the most elevated part of European Russia lies in the road between St. Petersburg and Moscow, commonly called the mountain of Volda, in which are the sources of the three great rivers of the Wolga, Dnieper, and Dwina. Between the lakes Ladoga and Onega are the mountains of Olonetz, which are of great extent, having their summits covered with eternal snow; but they are more remarkable for their extent than their altitude.

Forests.—Russia is so abundant in forests that it would be vain to attempt to enumerate them. There are prodigious forests between Petersburg and Moscow, and others between Vladimir and Arzomas. Further to the south there seems to have been a forest of still greater extent, probably the Riphæan forest of antiquity, where now extends a plain covered with a thick coat of rich black soil so remarkable for its fertility.

Rivers.—The principal rivers of European Russia are the following:

1. The Wolga, or Volga, which is by far the largest in this quarter of the globe, has its source in two small lakes among the mountains of Volda, in the government of Tver, and begins to be navigable six miles below its spring. In its

course, it receives near forty rivers, some of them very large, and waters the walls of near double that number of towns, fertilizing all the lands on each side, and supplying them with prodigious quantities of fish, particularly sturgeon, salmon, pike, &c. of a large size and exquisite taste. Towards the latter end of its course, this river takes a winding current towards the south, and, after a course of full 3000 English miles, falls into the Caspian Sea, about 36 miles below Astrachan. Towards the end of the spring, this river is so swelled by the melting of the ice and snow, as to cause great inundations. The masters of the vessels navigating this river, carefully observe the season, as at this time they have not only an opportunity of a safe passage over the shallows, but also over several flat islands which then lie a considerable depth under water. This is reckoned one of the most fertile rivers in Europe; and it is remarkable that, in all this extensive course, there is not a single cataract to interrupt the navigation: but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, the number of its islands increases; and it divides itself into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: all these arms divide themselves into others still less, which join and sever again; so that the Wolga discharges itself into the Caspian Sea by more than seventy mouths. By means of this noble river and the Twersa, the city of Petersburg preserves a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia, but even with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caspian Sea.

2. The Don, which rises near Ephiphan, in the government of Toul, and in the southern part of its course divides the most eastern part of Russia from Asia, exclusive of its turnings and windings, discharges itself into the Sea of Asoph, about 400 miles from its rise. During the summer months this river is so low, and has so many windings and shoals, that it is scarcely navigable.

3. The Dnieper, or Boristhenes, which rises in the government of Tver, and flows, during its whole course, of upwards of 800 miles, through the Russian dominions, falling into the Black Sea near Oczakow. Its navigation is only once interrupted by a series of cataracts, which, however, are passed in the spring without much difficulty.

4. The Dwina rises in the government of Vologda, and falls into the White Sea at Archangel.

5. The Duna, or Western Dwina, rises between the provinces of Pskov and Smolensk, and takes a north-westerly course for above 500 miles, falling into the Baltic Sea below Riga.

6. The Dniester, which is the present boundary between Russia and Turkey, rises in Galicia, and, after a course (including its windings) of full 500 miles, falls into the Black Sea, between the mouths of the Dnieper and the Danube.

Exclusive of the above rivers, there are several others, to enter into a description of which, would far exceed our limits.

Lakes.—The chief lakes of European Russia are the following:

1. Ladoga, which is reckoned the largest in Europe, is situated in the government of Viborg, and is formed by four rivers, which continually pour in their streams, and those of other smaller lakes, into it. To prevent its overflow from so many streams, it has a channel, by which it discharges itself into the Gulf of Finland, and thence into the Baltic. It is computed to be above 100 miles long, and about 60 in breadth, where widest. It breeds prodigious quantities of seals, and a variety of good fish, such as salmon, sturgeon, and a peculiar kind called *ladog*, of the bigness of a herring, but of a finer taste, from which the lake is supposed to have its name.

2. Onega, situated in the government of Olo-netz, is the next in size, and lies about 50 miles eastward of Ladoga. It is nearly 100 miles in length, and 40 in breadth. It receives several rivers; and the navigable Swir carries the waters out of this lake into that of Ladoga. Along the coast are several considerable cities, situate mostly upon or near the mouths of those rivers that fall into it from all the four sides, for the convenience of commerce.

3. On the south of that of Onega is that called the White Lake, about 20 leagues from it, which discharges itself into it by the river Coeschea, and is about half the size of that.

4. Peypus, in Livonia, is near 70 miles in length, and about 40 in breadth. It runs into the gulf of Finland by the river Narva, and abounds in fish.

All the lakes in this country breed such innumerable swarms of flies, gnats, and other insects; during two or three months of intense heat, as makes the summer nearly as troublesome as the winter to the inhabitants.

Canals.—Those artificial rivers, which have been attended with such beneficial consequences to civilized Europe, have not been altogether neglected here. Peter the Great projected several; one of the principal of which was the junction of the rivers Don and Wolga, which, in one place, are not above 50 miles asunder. This

grand project, however, was defeated by an irruption of Tartars; and though it has not yet been entirely abandoned, has never been completed. The same monarch, finding that the great lake Onega was very liable to sudden and perilous storms, and that it abounded in shoals and sand-banks, that were continually changing their position, caused the Ladoga canal to be dug along its shores, from the mouth of the Volkof into the Neva, which canal is 104 versts* long, 10 sajènes* broad, $1\frac{1}{2}$ sajène deep, and has 25 sluices. The river Volkof is navigable from its estuary into the Ladoga to within a few miles of the Tverza, which are joined by another canal; and this is the grand connecting medium of nearly the whole inland navigation of Russia.

Animals.—The zoology of Russia is in a great measure similar to that of Denmark and Sweden. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes prey of every creature it can master, and is said to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree forests. There are also hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures, which afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes and ermines are more valuable in Russia than elsewhere. Formerly the dromedary and camel were almost the only beasts of burden known in many parts of Russia; but the czar Peter encouraged the breed of horses, the finest species of which, in the north, are those of Livonia and Lithuania; while the Tartarian breed, in the south, have long been in high estimation. But those employed in the ordinary purposes of life are but small; as are their cows and sheep, the finest of which are found in the government of Kazan.

The large and small otter, which live upon lobsters, are very common in the Mosqua and Soura. The latter, when caught alive, cannot be domesticated, and soon dies. The musk-rat is found in Soura, and in the brooks which fall into the Khoper; but the large grey house-rat has not yet made its appearance in these territories.

On account of the severe cold in the northern parts of this country, not only water-fowl, cranes, swans, ducks, geese, snipes, &c. but almost all sorts of land-birds, fly to the southward, in winter, in infinite numbers; and return in the spring, when the snow disappears.

In the government of Pensa there are many wood and heath-cocks, a number of tame and wild ducks; and, in winter, innumerable flocks of small birds, particularly siskins and greenfinches. Such a multiplicity of birds induce

bird-catchers to crowd to this place, even from Moscow; and they catch many thousands of greenfinches, which are carried for sale to that city. The whole empire abounds with wild fowl and game of all sorts; and in the more solitary parts, are numerous birds of prey.

There are plenty and variety of fish in the rivers and lakes of this country. But they abound in particular with sturgeon, cod, salmon, and beluga: the latter resembles a sturgeon, and is often called the large sturgeon; it is from 12 to 15 feet in length, and weighs from 900 to 1600 and 1800 lbs. weight; its flesh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the sturgeon and the beluga the Russians make the famous caveare, so much esteemed for its richness and flavour, that it is often sent in presents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they often find what is called the beluga-stone, which is concealed in that mass of glandular flesh which covers the posterior parts of the dorsal spine, supplying the place of a kidney in fish. The instant it is taken from the fish it is soft and moist, but quickly hardens in the air. Its size is that of a hen's egg; in shape it is sometimes oval, and sometimes flattened, and commonly sells for a ruble, equal to 4s. 6d. of our money. This stone is supposed by Professor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fish; it holds a considerable rank, though with little merit, among the domestic medicines of the Russians, who scrape it, and mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diseases of children, and other disorders.

In this country are innumerable swarms of insects, which are hatched by the summer's heat in the sands, morasses, and forests, and are said to be so troublesome as to render great part of those regions uninhabitable. There is no country in Europe better stocked with bees, particularly Polish Russia, where honey is one of the principal articles of commerce.

Vegetables.—The Russian provinces, north of the Baltic, contain the same plants as those of Swedish and Norwegian Lapland. Such as extend between the 50th and 60th deg. of latitude abound principally in the common vegetables of the north of France and Germany, some of which, however, are wanting, on account of the greater severity of the Russian winters, from their proximity to the vast plains of Tartary and the forests of Siberia. The trees of most use and in greatest abundance are the fir, the Scotch pine, the yew-leaved fir, and the larch; all of which, mingled together, form the vast impenetrable forests, whence the rest of Europe is principally supplied with masts, deals, pitch, and tar.

* A *verst* is about three-quarters of a mile English; a *sajène* is about seven feet English.

The other forest-trees are the elm; the lime, of the inner bark of which the Russian mats are made, and from whose blossoms the immense swarms of wild bees collect the chief part of their honey, the birch, the alder, the aspen, the greater maple, and sycamore. Of the shrubs and humbler plants, those of most importance are mountain-ash, from whose berries, by fermentation and distillation, an ardent spirit is obtained; the cloudberry, the cranberry, the bearberry, and the stone bramble; the fruit of all which, for want of better, is highly esteemed, and is either eaten fresh, or is preserved in snow during the winter: the angelica, whose succulent stalks, when candied, form a favourite conserve with most of the northern nations; as well as the following vegetables, most of which are either found only in our flower-gardens, or are of rare occurrence in a truly wild state in Britain: pyramidal bell-flower, the holly-hock, the Moldavian balm, evening primrose, mezereon, and hepatica.

In the extensive vales of the Don and Dnieper, that occupy the warm shores of the Black Sea, or the delicious recesses of Taurida, rise the oak, both the common kind and the species with prickly cups; the black and the white poplar, of unusual size, skirt along the margins of the streams; the ash, the horn-beam, the nettle-tree, occupy the upland pastures; and the elegant beech crowns the summits of the lime-stone ridges. Of the fruit-bearing shrubs and trees, besides the gooseberry, the red, the white, and the black currant, which are dispersed in abundance through the woods, there are the almond and peach, the apricot and crab-cherry, the medlar, the walnut, the mulberry, the olive, the fig, the vine, and the pomegranate. Of the ornamental shrubs and plants, the following are the most distinguished: the dwarf almond, the laurel, the pyracantha, the bay-tree, the common and shrubby jasmine, and the tamarisk.

Minerals.—The chief mines belonging to Russia are in the Asiatic part of the empire; but a few are situated in the European; and the people are daily improving in working them. The richest iron mines are in the neighbourhood of Moscow; and in the government of Perm are several both of iron and copper.

Curiosities.—Among the natural curiosities of Russia are many cataracts, to enumerate one half of which would far exceed our limits. The prodigious rocks of ice, of several miles in length, and of enormous height, which float in the ocean to the north of Russia, may likewise be accounted a great natural curiosity. In the cabinet of Natural History, at Petersburg, is a

rhinoceros, dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his skin, and the hair upon it, perfect. The inhabitants of this country are extremely fond of the ringing of bells, which are always to be heard tinkling in some quarter or other. The great bell of Moscow weighs, according to Mr. Coxe, 432,000 lb. and exceeds in bulk every other in the known world. "Its size is so enormous," says that writer, "that I could scarcely have given credit to the account of its magnitude, if I had not examined it myself, and ascertained its dimensions with great exactness. Its height is 19 feet; its circumference at the bottom 21 yards 11 inches; its greatest thickness 23 inches." It was cast in the reign of the empress Anne; but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; so that it lately lay in a manner useless. The building of Petersburg, and raising it on a sudden from a few fishing huts to a populous and rich city is, perhaps, an enterprise hardly to be paralleled. The same may be said of the fortress of Cronstadt, in the neighbourhood, which is almost impregnable. This fortress and city employed for some years 300,000 men in laying its foundation, and driving piles night and day; a work which no monarch, except he were possessed of the same enterprising spirit as Peter, could have executed.

Antiquities.—Russia cannot be supposed to afford a great variety of ancient monuments. Sometimes the tombs of their Pagan ancestors are discovered, containing weapons and ornaments. Herodotus informs us that the Scythians regarded the tombs of their princes with singular veneration; and the Sarmatians, or Slavons, seem to have imbibed the same ideas. The catcombs at Kiow were perhaps formed in the Pagan period, though they are now replete with marks of Christianity. They are labyrinths of considerable extent, dug, as would appear, through a mass of hardened clay; but they do not seem to contain the bodies of the monarchs.

The idols of Russia are sometimes found cast in bronze; and Dr. Guthrie, of Petersburg, has given an ingenious account of the Slavonic mythology. The chief god, Peroun, was supposed the author of thunder; Volos resembled Pan; Swetovid was the Sun, or Apollo; Silnoy Bog, or the strong god, was Hercules; Leda resembles Mars, &c. Many divinities presided over love; such as Lada, or Venus; Lelio, or Cupid, and his brother Dido, who, like the Anteros of the Greeks, counteracted the power of Cupid. Radagast was the god who protected towns. The Russians had also goddesses corresponding with Ceres, Diana, and Pomona; and their Roussalki were nymphs of the woods and waters.

ters. The Pagan Russians also worshipped Znitich, or Vesta, in the form of fire; and venerated waters; the Bog, or Hypanis, being as highly regarded as the Ganges among the Indians: the Don and the Danube were also holy streams; and there was a sacred lake, environed with a thick forest, in the Isle of Rugen, which was adored by the Slavonic tribes.

The conversion of the Russians was followed by the erection of many churches; but, as Byzantine or Italian architects were employed, those edifices have but few peculiarities. It is thought that no country of considerable extent can afford fewer monuments of ancient art than Russia.

SECTION III.

Account of the original Population of Russia; with an Outline of the National Character, &c. of the various Nations composing the existing Population of this vast Empire—Their Dress—Habitations, Manner of Living, &c.—Manners and Customs—Amusements, &c.—The Population—Religion—Trade and Manufactures—Language, and present State of Literature and the Arts—Naval and Military Strength—Revenue—Laws—Form of Government, &c. &c. of the present Russian Empire in Europe.

NOTHING is allowed to be more interesting than descriptions of the manners and customs of distant nations; and we have, therefore, paid particular attention in this work to introduce all the new remarks on the subject that are worthy of preservation.

Original Population.—The original inhabitants of the European part of this empire are (as we have already had occasion to remark) generally allowed to be of Slavonic extraction, which people were an extensive race, radically distinct from the Goths on the one hand, who, as possessing the countries more to the west, must have preceded the Slavons in their passage from Asia into Europe; and equally distinguishable, in language, person, and manners, from the Tartars and other nations on the east. They are the *Sarmatæ* of the ancients, and were ever remarkable for personal elegance and strength.

Nations composing this Empire.—According to Mr. Tooke's account, this vast empire contains within its boundaries not fewer than eighty-one distinct nations, differing from each other in their origin, their language, and their manners. The greater part of these nations inhabit the Asiatic provinces of this empire. In the European division, to which this account is restricted, the grand distinctions are, the descend-

ants of the ancient Slavi, comprehending the Russians properly so called, and the neighbouring Poles; the Fins, under which denomination we may include the inhabitants of the country properly so called, the Laplanders, and the natives of the northern provinces; the Samoides, beyond the river Mezen; the Kozacks; and the Crimean Tartars.

The Russians properly so called, are, in general, of good appearance, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, especially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from those of the English or Scotch, but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-sight seems to be defective, occasioned, probably, by the snow, which for a long time of the year is continually present. Their officers and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valour. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, let it be ever so severe; endure extreme hardships with great patience, and content themselves with very hard fare. It is a fact that, during the late war in Poland (1807), their common food was coarse black bread, dipped in train-oil! The horses that are killed in battle they deem quite a luxury. Notwithstanding the severity of their climate, the diseases are few, and there are frequent and remarkable instances of longevity.

Till the time of Peter the Great, the Russians were in general barbarous, ignorant, and much addicted to drunkenness. Not only the common people, but many of the nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication; the most complete objects of misery and barbarity appeared in the streets, while the court of Moscow was one of the most splendid in the world. The czar and the grandees dressed after the most superb Asiatic manner; and their magnificence was astonishing. The earl of Carlisle, in the account of his embassy, says, that he could see nothing but gold and precious stones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufacture, however, of those and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter, at his accession to the throne, forced his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in the European manner; and even obliged the laity to shave their beards. The Russians, before this time, had no convenience for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no places of public diversion; and they entertained a sovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At present a French or English gentleman may live as comfortably and sociably in Russia as in most other parts of Europe. Their polite assemblies, since the accession of the late empress, have been put under proper regulations; and

and few of the ancient usages remain. It is, however, to be observed, that, notwithstanding the severities of Peter, and the prudence of succeeding governments, drunkenness still continues among all ranks; nor are even priests or ladies ashamed of it on holidays.

Having thus given a general view of the Russian character, we must consider a little more particularly that of the several classes into which they are divided.

According to Mr. Tooke, there is in Russia, at present, but one order of nobility, though it is not unusual in travellers to mention the higher and lower nobility. The title *Boyar*, so common in the 18th century, is now disused; and those of Prince, Count, and Baron, form the chief distinctions. They have always enjoyed certain peculiar rights and privileges; such as exclusively possessing landed estates, which they cannot alienate or sell. They can arbitrarily impose taxes and services upon their vassals, and may inflict on them any kind of corporeal punishment short of death. If a nobleman be found guilty of any crime, he may incur the forfeiture of his estate, but he cannot be made a vassal to the crown. He is, however, bound to personal service in war.

"Moscow," says Mr. Reinbeck, a late traveller, "is the favourite residence of the richest and most distinguished Russians, as its distance from the capital enables them to lead a more unconstrained life, and exposes them less to be eclipsed by the splendour of imperial magnificence; while those who cannot exist out of the atmosphere of a court, bask in the sun-shine of princely favour.

"As the great in Moscow consult their own ease and enjoyment more than the maintenance of any particular character, their style of living is more extravagant than in St. Petersburg. They are surrounded by a swarm of attendants, and livery-servants of all descriptions, who stare you in the face at your entrance, and amount in some houses to above 50, exclusive of women and children. The domestics, according to a moderate computation, are estimated at above 80,000, whose maintenance would be altogether beyond the capacity of their employers, were they obliged to defray it with ready money, instead of having all the necessaries for housekeeping brought thither by the peasants, even from their most distant estates. In this manner every family receives several caravans in the year.

"The Russian nobles have the character of sociability above those of every other country; and in Moscow the remark is more applicable than in Petersburg. Unincumbered by any serious occupation, the Muscovite nobleman, with-

out possessing any extraordinary share of philanthropy or hospitality, is happy to collect around him a circle of individuals, who can give life and variety to the dull uniform scene of good living and idleness. His doors are therefore open to every well-dressed person, but particularly foreigners, whom he is proud to receive into his house, from an idea of the honour shewn to his family, by this preference to the numerous other candidates for company and entertainment. If the visitor will attend them, during summer, into the country, the favour is doubly heightened, by his supplying the want of social diversions, which the winter-season affords in the city. The guest is here not only provided with every thing he can desire, but may follow the bent of his own humour, as if he were proprietor of all in the house. At dinner only, and in the evening, he devotes himself to his hospitable entertainers. Whoever is free from all business and connections, and is disposed to purchase a maintenance with a becoming pliability and accommodation of his social talents, need never be at a loss for a comfortable home. Cards are an indispensable condition, without which no one is admitted to their table. Fortunately their play is not so high in family circles as at St. Petersburg; nay, among themselves, the game of Boston is not unfrequently played for a kopeck (halfpenny) the fish. On the other hand, games of chance are now becoming again more prevalent than ever, and, indeed, games in which thousands are lost. Some of the ladies, in particular, are said to have their faro banks. From these parties, the stranger, whose incapacity is taken for granted, is released; or he may take part in it, according as he himself may feel inclined. Sometimes, indeed, he even receives a certain sum from his patron, to enable him to join and make up the party, in which case the winnings are his own.

"The Russian nobility cannot, upon the whole, be termed uncultivated, for there are among them many intelligent individuals, but their intelligence is confined simply to matters of fact. It would be vain to look for principles among them, and still less for a definite character. Such, at least, constitute the grand mass of the higher orders, to which there are very few exceptions entitled to consideration. Where, in fact, can men acquire principles and character, who have no other pursuit than the enjoyment of ease and pleasure? Nine, and often eleven, is the hour of rising. During breakfast, they either learn the news of the day from their own servants, or from some casual visitors. About one they are ready for a walk or a ride, when the gentlemen go to their mistresses, or the club; and the ladies to their French milliners, where every sort of accommo-

dation is generally provided. By three the master and lady of the house are both returned, and the dinner party is assembled, the larger the better, with parasites innumerable. The card-tables being at hand, a game of Boston is commonly played until the dinner is served up: in the mean time several sorts of liqueurs are handed round in small glasses, and refreshments are placed on the side-board. The time of dinner, which lasts till five, is occupied with laughing, talking, drinking, and eating: three or four sorts of wine are always in circulation; amongst the number, perhaps, some very nice *nalifki*, or fruit-wines of their own making. The table is covered with a remarkable superfluity of provisions, in the choice and preparation of which the most refined Epicurism prevails, particularly in their national dishes, which they know how to render agreeable even to foreign palates. The vivacity of the company is generally kept up at the expence of one poor simple or bashful mortal, who, as the butt of the rest, has to endure every species of jest; or by some droll genius, who knows, as many Russian wits do, how to excite laughter by frequent coruscations of true humour. But peculiar refinement, or acuteness, is not requisite in the latter for the diversion of his audience. On the removal of the cloth, an universal bowing closes the dinner-scene, which is succeeded by coffee, when the party disperses without any further ceremony. Every one follows the bent of his inclination, either to play at Boston, or recruit his exhausted strength by a short nap, till seven, when they repair to the theatre, or some public place, and at the conclusion re-assemble for cards and supper. At twelve they sit down to supper, and retire to rest at two. Every day is open table, but on holidays a few covers extraordinary are added: on Easter, New-year's-day, and birth-days, all acquaintances, who do not keep house themselves, are expected; but on patron saints' days, in particular, very grand entertainments are given, to which custom requires that all relations and acquaintances should come without being invited. On such family-festivals presents are interchanged; and amongst some of the great is a custom for them to receive the congratulations of their acquaintances and dependents, who crowd the antichamber before their hour of rising. At Easter, the eggs are not forgotten, which now constitute an article of great luxury. They are made of glass, or porcelain, with finepaintings, and often cost 50 rubles. It is not unusual for a present of more real value to be annexed. These are the customs in town, which differ but little in the country.

"Intellectual pursuits form no subject of consideration, except what relate to theatrical

amusements. Some ladies of rank have discovered peculiar talents for the stage. But the master of the house takes no immediate part in the representation; the male characters being performed by the dangles and dependents on the family, particularly foreigners, who are the instruments of their amusements. French plays, or operas, are mostly chosen for representation; that honour being very rarely shewn to the productions of their native poets. The practice of forming a company of actors from their vassals is now becoming less common.

"There are many passionate lovers of music among the nobility, and several who keep chapels for themselves, and form bands of musicians from among their vassals, whom they have instructed, or rather trained, by skilful foreign artists. Painting is cultivated by many of the fair-sex, and carried to great perfection in simple copying; but the superior talent of invention rarely discovers itself; neither do the ladies pursue this amusement after they leave the parental abode, which generally takes place at an early period. Dancing is a matter of great importance in Moscow, where more pains are bestowed upon it than in Petersburg. The females are unquestionably more accomplished than the males. They commonly speak, besides their native tongue, French, English, and Italian, but German not so often, except when they have to converse with artisans. Books of amusement are become to them an article of necessity, which to the men, in general, are an object of disgust. It is true, however, that their reading is principally confined to the French novels, and extends, at most, to the productions of Voltaire, Rousseau, Mercier, Raynal, Florian, Marmontel, and La Fontaine. To be ignorant of these would be unpardonable; but it is not reckoned a disgrace to know as little of the poets of their own country as of those of the Hurons. A library, of course, constitutes an indispensable part of the furniture of the house of a man of fashion, though himself, perhaps, never looks into the books he possesses.

"Happy marriages, amongst persons of fashion and high rank, are a great rarity in all countries, but no where more so than in Russia. Interest, or subserviency to family arrangements, is the universal principle on which matches are formed, and disgust is the invariable consequence of such matrimonial unions. However, as divorces, according to the rules of the Greek church, are very rarely granted, at least, so as to restore liberty to both parties, they endeavour to lighten the burden for themselves as much as possible, by making all the separation which lies in their power. Economical considerations rarely

rarely impede them in the indulgence of their wishes, as a Russian lives only for the present moment, heedless about his posterity, whether they are provided for or not; at least, on their account, he would not deny himself the gratification of the most frivolous humour.

"Nay, even when love is the author of an alliance, it can seldom ensure domestic felicity, owing, in a great measure, to the unfavourable character of the men; who, accustomed from their youth to a perpetual variety, are incapable of a fixed attachment, and cannot satiate their blunted senses otherwise than by a succession of female charms. Of course, such men will be constant violators of their fidelity to their wives; and when they are blessed with families, will even make up to themselves a principle, that it is better not to multiply those families to too great an extent, with which they attempt to satisfy themselves for their illicit intercourse with those who will bring them no additional heirs. Youth is, however, indispensable in every case; for a girl of eighteen is almost past the desirable age for a Russian, and must content herself with whatever offer comes in her way. The neglect of the husbands begets a similar spirit in the wives, who, to supply the loss of connubial felicity, are often led into illicit practices, which, if no public proofs thereof make their appearance, are politely winked at by the gentlemen. The most powerful chain which nature has formed for the restraint of female desires, namely, bashful modesty, is almost unknown among the fair sex of Russia; and even should something like it exist in a virgin state, the nuptial ceremony is pretty well fitted for its complete removal; it being customary for every marriage rite to be consummated previous to the departure of the company, who, on being apprised of it by the display of certain signs, return their congratulations to the new-married pair. You may easily suppose that all this does not pass without the coarsest jests, which are calculated to destroy every spark of virgin modesty in the female mind.

"For the husband to live in one town and the wife in another, or at different country-houses, nay, even in different countries, is nothing extraordinary; but if both are in the same place, they seldom have distinct households, however remote their hearts may be from each other. If a woman then know how to obtain the esteem of her husband, she may frequently succeed, not only in obtaining common politeness from him, but even be treated with the greatest delicacy.

"The nobility have found a convenient conductor for disburdening themselves of their su-

perfluities, in the means that have been offered them for securing their property from sinking. Catharine erected a bank and a fund of some millions, from whence landholders could receive sums, according to the number of males on their estates, on apparently very advantageous terms. They were to pay off every year a very moderate interest, with a part of the capital, which, if I mistake not, would amount to about eight per cent.; so that in 25 years, the interest and capital being liquidated, the estate was redeemed; but whoever did not keep up his payments, forfeited his mortgage to the public stock. The emperor Paul, in like manner, advanced several millions for this purpose. The great eagerly took up sums on these conditions; but having many other uses for their money than applying it to the improvement of their estates, forgot the terms, and lost their pledges. The estates being put up to public auction, were mostly purchased by the crown. A decrease of wealth naturally tends to diminish credit, and such was particularly the case with noblemen and those holding offices under government; who, according to a late regulation, are not permitted to issue bills, only simple bonds, which, except in particular cases, do not endanger the security of the person; and the debtor has, therefore, always some artifice to delay, or even entirely elude, payment.

"That the legal interest bears no proportion to the value of money in Russia, is a well-known fact. The citizen is strictly prohibited from taking more than five per cent. under pain of not only losing the capital, but of undergoing some severe correction. The bank for lending on pledges, which is connected with the imperial school in Moscow and St. Petersburg, has alone the privilege of taking eight per cent., an advance which unfortunately falls most heavily on the poorer class, who, to relieve the pressing exigency of the moment, see themselves compelled to pawn all their valuables for a mere trifle. All the laws for the prevention of usury have hitherto been found ineffectual, nay, almost subversive of the end proposed, as they may seem to imply, in some degree, the equity of the demand. Money-lenders are pretty cautious to whom they intrust their money, and carry their distrust to an inconvenient excess. When a man of fashion, or any other, wishes to be accommodated with a loan, he must not only pay an enormous interest, but give a pledge which is both secure and treble the value of the sum advanced; for the creditor naturally calculates on being kept long out of his money, and perhaps having, finally, many expences for bribery and law-suits. In consequence of this rigour on the part of usurers,

usurers, there is frequently a total stagnation of credit.

"A pecuniary settlement with a great man in Russia is one of the most arduous and painful tasks which a person can have to perform. Where neither law nor honour are attended to, what tie is there that can bind a man to keep his promises or contracts? The Russian nobleman feels himself set above the reach of the law, and regards his word of no other value than as it answers his own purpose; whoever, therefore, has a demand on him, may think himself happy if, after incessant dunning and entreaties, he obtains only one half of his claim; for it would be vain to contend against a man who has the weapon of power to oppose to justice.

"It has hitherto been the practice for those of the nobility, who have lavished away their inheritance, to recruit their broken fortunes by the favour of the monarch. Catharine and Paul made enormous presents to their adherents; but the system of Alexander's government is altogether reversed, no peasants being transferred as property for ever, only granted out for a term of years, or a life-time.

"The gentry in Russia lead as careless and profligate a life as the nobility; being surrounded by a proportionable number of idlers, and having a proportionate degree of parade and extravagance. The principal offices of the executive government being vested in their hands, they have learnt the art of turning them to the best account. Their table and their pleasures are more national than those of the nobility; but cleanliness and order are not prominent features in their domestic arrangements. This class is so numerous and various, that it would be impossible to draw any general line of distinction.

"The Russian merchants form a class altogether different from the preceding. They can be characterized neither by their swarm of domestics, nor the prodigality in their household, nor even by the tinge of culture which pervades the higher ranks. If enjoyment appear to be the only consideration of the great, gain is that of the Russian merchants. For gain, be it ever so inconsiderable, he grudges no labour or toil, and denies himself commonly every indulgence in good living which his wealth would afford. On particular festivals only, his board is liberally supplied with good things, which he deals out to his guests with national hospitality. But those to whom excessive eating and drinking are disagreeable, will not be his willing guests; for he esteems it a point of honour not to send any one from his table in a state of sobriety. He retains the costume of his forefathers; namely, the long coat and the beard, although the former

is not disposed in quite so many plaits, and the latter is shorter and more regular. He wears his hair closely cut and smoothly combed. In winter, a fur cap supplies the place of the round hat which he uses in summer. All that he has, however, is of the finest sort. His fingers are likewise adorned with several rings of great value. The wives of merchants advanced in years go still in their old Russian brocaded jackets, and caps decorated with lace and pearls; long diamond ear-rings; genuine pearls round their necks and arms, and shoes of white or coloured atlas. The younger women wear a white lawn, or a worked petticoat, and a jacket trimmed with lace; a black cloak with broad black lace; white silk stockings, pearl necklace and bracelets, diamond rings for the ears and fingers, and a cap of fine lace. In winter the richest velvet cloaks, lined with sable, and cut in the German and Russian taste, adorn both sexes.

"The females in this class are kept under the most perfect restraint and subjection, at least in appearance, and are totally devoid of all mental refinement. Their lives pass away in a state of perfect idleness; for idler women than the Russians are certainly no where to be found.

The contrast to these old Russians are the creatures of modern fashion, who, in their external appearance, vie with the higher classes, and amalgamate the French with the English dress and manners, according to the humour of the day. Of this description there are many more in Petersburg than in Moscow; and in both places they are an eye-sore to the sticklers for antiquity. But what these good people acquire in outward show, they lose in solidity. An addition of many thousand rubles to the expences of an old Russian brings many an adventurous merchant into a bankruptcy of some millions, in which he seldom calculated so judiciously as to raise a finer and more beautiful edifice out of the ruins, but, in reality, let every thing sink into an unfathomable abyss. Fortunately, the loss generally falls on the wealthy and great, who, unacquainted with the old proverb, "that all is not gold which glitters," suffer themselves to be dazzled by the external appearance in which their own grandeur is reflected. They press sums of money upon an individual, who feasts them at his house, without suspecting that they are paying for their own entertainment. The Russians in general have different views on this subject from the Germans. The latter place most confidence in the man of business who makes the least display of his wealth; while the former would not trust him with a farthing, conceiving him to be a beggar, who is lurking after his money. His confidence, on the other hand, is instantly

stantly acquired by a splendid outside, that indicates no want of his aid.

“However, the old-fashioned bearded Russians are not always to be trusted; for their love of gain will sometimes predominate over their honesty, and when the favourable moment occurs, they will make no scruple of securing a handsome sum by a convenient failure. In this case it is always advisable to consent to an immediate composition, and secure all that is to be had by agreement, rather than suffer the whole to be swallowed up in the common vortex of law. This is particularly applicable to foreigners, who, of course, are less acquainted with the ‘*savoir faire*’ than the Russians.

“The mercantile class is, moreover, distinguished from the nobility by their propensity to fanaticism, which is directly opposite to the prevailing indifference of the latter. This class contains a great number of old believers (*Roskolniki*), who are known to be rather obnoxious to the government, as they hold many free tenets, particularly that of not acknowledging the monarchs to be patriarchs. The emperor Paul commenced the harsh task of conversion among them, which was soon terminated by the mediation of love.

“The Russian merchant is concerned but very little for the education of his children, except in the article of languages, from which he expects to derive a source of emolument; but it is not in his power to allow them much time for education; for if his son be past the age of boyhood, he cannot be got into a counting-house, because his maintenance is supposed by the principal to exceed his services. Most of their sons, however, are now departing from their fathers, both in their dress, manners, habits, and sentiments.

“The lower order of Russians (*Mushik, tschornig Narod*, that is, the filthy rabble) live in Moscow, as in St. Petersburg, upon bread, quas, cucumbers, cabbage, garlic, fish, and a little meat; and are stowed up by dozens of men, women, and children, in stinking, close, black rooms, not unlike coal-pits.

“But what a difference in the manner and living of the German merchant and artisan, in St. Petersburg, and in Moscow! The German merchants in the former live like princes, in superb edifices; while those in Moscow mostly reside in dwellings of wood, like private people. Their house wears the marks of opulence, but very little of grandeur and luxury. Hospitality, or, what is usually so called, an open house, is less frequent than in St. Petersburg, and the expenses of the table are much more limited. Punch is a much less frequent drink, and the wines are inferior in goodness and variety; their place is in most houses supplied by beer. The

carriages are handsome, but do not keep pace with every change of fashion. Their parties are less distinguished by an affectation of the manners and the follies of people of the first fashion and quality. There is more economy, and, indeed, German economy, among them, with less inclination to a diversity of pleasures, in whose train necessity and distress commonly attend. In the domestic circle they live in a limited but decent style: only here and there rather poorly. However, the stranger who recommends himself by a pleasing deportment, will meet with an agreeable and welcome reception at all times, and will be rendered truly comfortable in most houses; for what Moscow wants in the profusion and magnificence of St. Petersburg, is amply supplied by cordiality and friendliness. Intellectual cultivation is not altogether unknown among the German merchants of Moscow; but it has by no means reached the same point of perfection as at St. Petersburg. The opportunities are of course less, owing to the local circumstances of the two places. St. Petersburg, which is the seat of the imperial court, and all the different departments of the state, is, at the same time, the mart for an extensive maritime commerce; while the trade of Moscow, important and extensive as it may be, is more simple, and the share of it in the hands of foreigners is less considerable. It consists very much in money transactions, which are apt to degenerate into usurious practices. At the same time, Moscow is altogether deficient in good public schools; for I am told, with what degree of justice I cannot decide, that since the new arrangements in the university, the institutions, such as the gymnasium and the grammar-school, which had been gradually formed, began to lose their value. But bad as they may be, they are infinitely superior to the private boarding-schools, which are merely speculations for quickly filling the pocket; which purpose, however, they do not answer so well as a French milliner's, or trinket shop. I was informed of one private school only, that was not altogether disreputable. This was conducted by Messrs. Roland and Duerès, and calculated principally for the wealthy nobility. Consequently all good instruction must be had by private teachers, who demand more for their lessons than in Petersburg; so that the most moderate education would require a fortune of itself. Whatever parent, then, in despite of all obstacles, has his sons instructed out of the ordinary course, may have the satisfaction of often hearing them cried up for wonders, and perhaps, still oftener, the dissatisfaction of hearing himself charged with folly and extravagance. In this manner the door is shut against improvements in this class.

"The contrast of living betwixt a German artisan in St. Petersburg and Moscow is even still more striking. The latter, generally speaking, never dreams of mixing in the societies, or aspiring to the pleasures and mode of living, of the higher orders. He is still altogether the unpolished pot-companion from Hamburgh, Lubeck, and Breslau, who, like his townsmen and fellow-artisans, is rude and ignorant, and, with a full purse, just as insolent. He is imposing in the extreme; and woe to the traveller who falls into his hands. His pleasure principally consists in visiting the little village ale-houses, and drinking away his evenings. Without any taste for the comforts of life, his habits are even more licentious than in St. Petersburg. Some tailors, perhaps, may form an exception to these observations.

"The Frenchman performs here two principal parts, those of milliner and private tutor (*utschitel*), and often both combined in one person; he comes into more points of contact with the Russians than the Germans, particularly with the great, whom he imposes upon to the utmost in his power, and by whom he is, if possible, in his turn, imposed upon. This is, in a great measure, owing to his language, and likewise to the task he generally undertakes—that of adorning body and mind. Besides, he is, on the whole, known to be a person who may be rendered useful in a variety of ways, and who will do and put up with almost any thing. With such a creature it is easy to come to an agreement, and to be always on good terms. A French *utschitel*, that is to say, of the lower order, from the class of *cabaretiers*, *commis*, *valets de chambre*, or even of the *chevalier*, and a French *marchande de mode*, has as positive a character as the fox and the magpie in the fable. Exclusively occupied with the '*de faire fortune*,' or '*corriger la fortune*,' they live as wretchedly as possible in private, '*en menageant les dehors*.' Their right eye is directed to the purse of the Russians, and the left to the Eden of France; and after a few years successful eyeing, they hasten, enriched by '*la folie Russe*,' to the only spot of ground which has charms for them."

The Russian peasantry are in general tall, healthy, and robust, patient of cold and hunger, inured to hardships, and remarkably capable of bearing the most sudden transitions from the extremes of hot to cold weather. Nothing is more customary than to see a Russian peasant who is overheated, and sweating at every pore, strip himself naked, and rush into a river. They are so inured to hardships that they will subsist for many days together on a little oatmeal and water, and even raw roots. Both sexes are remarkably active and vigorous, and accustom them-

selves to sleep every day after dinner. The females of this class are generally fair, comely, strong, and well shaped, obedient to their lordly husbands, and patient under discipline; they are even said to be fond of correction, which they are taught to consider as an infallible mark of their husbands' conjugal affection; and they pout and pine if it is withheld, as if they thought themselves treated with contempt or disregard: of this, however, they have little cause to complain, the husband, in general, being well disposed, both by nature and inebriety, to exert his arbitrary power.

The Russians were formerly noted for so strong an attachment to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign countries. This, however, was only the consequence of their pride and ignorance; for Russian nobility, besides those who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her late imperial majesty interested herself in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world and foreign services, particularly that of the British fleet.

The temper of the Russians is not much admired by travellers; they are held to possess good parts, but to be very deceitful. They are very servile to their superiors, to whom they pay an almost eastern homage. They are, in general, avaricious; and it is usual for them to demand previous payment for any articles they sell.

Dress.—People of distinction dress as the climate will admit, after the English and French manner. The common people in general wear long coats, reaching below the knee, made of dressed sheep-skins, with the wool inwards; trowsers of linen, almost as thick as sackcloth; a woollen cloth wrapped round the legs to a great thickness, instead of stockings; sandals, woven from slips of pliant bark, and fastened by strings of the same materials, which are afterwards twined round the leg, and serve as garters; over their legs, so swathed, they will often draw boots. In summer, the men will often wear coats and shirts only, and trowsers, but always swathe their legs. Their hair they suffer to hang down over the forehead, and cut it short in the poll. Their caps, or hats, are round, with very high crowns, lined with fur. They wear sashes round their waist, and double gloves, one of woollen, and the other of leather, which take in the hand without any distinction except the thumb. The dress of the women nearly resembles that of the other sex, with this difference, that their garments are looser, their caps very fantastical, and their shift-sleeves three or four ells in length, gathered up in folds from the shoulder to the wrist. The plate gives an accurate representation of them.

The women of rank bind their heads with pieces of silk or linen, so as to resemble the eastern turban; but in other respects, in summer time, dress like Europeans in general, except that they display more luxury. They have in their dresses but one ambition, which is, to be as ostentatious as possible, and to have variety; but they have very little idea of taste, or real elegance.

Habitations, Furniture, &c.—Many of the habitations of the Russians of the higher classes, whether in the towns or in the country, are built of brick and stone. They are ornamented with stoves, or flues, conducted into every room, which diffuse a more genial heat than our grates and chimnies. The houses of the great have, in general, been already described. The cottages of the peasants are constructed in a square shape; they are formed of whole trees, piled upon each other, and secured at the corners, where the ends meet, with mortises and tenons; and the spaces between the trees are stuffed with moss. Inside, the timbers are smoothed with the axe, so as to resemble wainscot; but are left without in their rude state, with the bark on. The roofs are in the penthouse style, composed of the barks of trees, or shingles, and covered with turf. They usually raise the whole house without the assistance of a saw; the axe or hatchet being their chief instrument. They finish the shell and roof of the house before they cut out the windows, which are merely openings a few inches square, closed with sliding shutters; and the door is generally so low, as not to admit a middle-sized man without stooping. Sometimes these cottages consist of two stories; in which case they make the lower apartment a kind of store-room, and live in the upper, mounting to it by a ladder. In the villages the scite of the houses is generally an oblong square, surrounding an area, inclosed with a high wooden wall, with a penthouse roof; the whole resembling a large barn. In one angle of this inclosure stands the house, fronting the street, with the staircase (where there are two stories) on the outside, the door opening underneath the penthouse roof. The furniture consists chiefly of a wooden table, or dresser, and benches fastened to the sides of the room; on which rest the family sleep, in their clothes, promiscuously, almost in a state of nature, and frequently with their heads hanging off the bench. In the midst of every room hangs from the ceiling a vessel of holy water and a lamp, which is lighted on particular occasions. Every house has a picture of some saint, coarsely daubed on wood, resembling more a Kalmuck idol than a human head; to this the highest marks of veneration are paid; all the members

of the family, the instant they rise, and before they go to rest, standing before it, and crossing themselves on the sides and forehead for several minutes, bowing very low, and often prostrating themselves on the ground before it. Every person also, on entering the room, pays his obeisance first to this object of worship.

Manner of Living.—The food of the peasants is black rye-bread, sometimes white, salt-fish, bacon, mushrooms; and a kind of hodge-podge, made of salt or fresh meat, groats, and rye-flour, highly seasoned with garlic and onions. Their bread they also stuff with onions and groats, carrots, or green corn, in order to render it more palatable, and season it with stinking oil. Mushrooms are so exceedingly common in this country as to form a very essential part of their provisions. "I seldom entered a cottage," says Mr. Coxe, "but I saw a great quantity of them; nor did I ever pass a market, but I was astonished at their vast abundance, and of all colours, white, black, brown, yellow, green, and pink." The common drink of the peasants is *quas*, a fermented liquor, something like sweet-wort, made by pouring warm water on rye, or barley-meal, and is deemed an excellent antiscorbutic. Mead is also a common beverage; but the malt liquors made here are very bad. They are extremely fond of whiskey, which the poorest can occasionally command, and which they often use to excess. They also consume a great quantity of tea.

The food they generally use in their journeys is a kind of rye-bread, cut into small square slices, and dried again in the oven. These, when they are hungry, they soak in water, and eat as a very comfortable repast.

Manners and Customs.—In addition to what we have said of the manners of the upper classes, we have merely to observe, that the Russians retain many manners and customs derived from their Pagan ancestors. They form a curious junction of European and Asiatic manners; and many of their ceremonies partake of eastern splendour. The great are fond of dwarfs; and some opulent ladies maintain female tellers of tales, whose occupation is to lull their mistresses asleep, by stories resembling those of the Arabian Nights.

In Russia the authority of parents over their children is almost as great as it was among the ancient Romans, and is often exercised with as great severity. Should a father, in punishing a son for his fault, be the immediate cause of his death, he could not be called to account for his conduct; he would have done nothing more than the law authorised him to do. Nor does this legal tyranny cease with the maturity of children; it continues

continues while they remain in their father's family, and is often exerted in the most indecent manner.

In superstitious notions and practices the common Russians are by no means behind their neighbours. Most of them believe in ghosts, apparitions, and hobgoblins; and few of them are fond of inhabiting the houses of deceased friends or relatives. Hence it often happens that these houses are left to fall into ruins, or sold to strangers at a very low rate. Even the house of a person who has fallen into poverty, or has otherwise become unfortunate, will not easily find a purchaser, because it has ejected its master.

On the Thursday before Whitsuntide, the young women celebrate the festival of the Slavonian goddess *Lada*, and her son *Dida*, with singing and dancing; after which they decorate a birch bush with garlands and ribbands, and then throw it with great solemnity into a river, predicting, from the figures which the ribbands assume in the stream, whom they shall wed, and what will be their fate in marriage.

On the 5th of January, they go into a cross street at night, and fancy they hear in every sound the prediction of their destiny.

The day after Christmas-day is a great festival with the midwives, because the Virgin Mary's midwife was materially concerned in the redemption of the world. They are strongly impressed with the belief of witches and fairies, water-goblins, and wizards of the stream, of whom they relate innumerable and unaccountable tales and stories.

The peasants, in their common intercourse, are very civil to each other. In higher life the gentlemen bow very low, and the ladies incline their heads instead of courtesying.

Amusements.—The amusements of the native Russians consist principally of singing, dancing, draughts, and some other games; foot-ball, and more especially swinging. The swing is every where used as an amusement by persons of rank and condition; but at Easter it is the grand diversion. The swings are of different constructions; some of them are nearly similar to those used in England. During the holidays these machines are set up in the public squares; and as the common people are remarkably fond of the diversion, it is to them a very joyful season.

Two or three times in the winter there are masquerades at the court of Petersburg, to which persons of all ranks are admitted. A magnificent suite of 20 apartments is opened upon these occasions, all handsomely illuminated. From 7000 to 8000 tickets are distributed; and Mr. Coxe says, that at one at which he was, he

should suppose that number was present. One of the apartments, a large oblong room; the same in which the common balls at court are held, has a space in the middle, inclosed with a low railing, appropriated to the nobility who dance. A most elegant saloon, of an oval form, nearly as large as the rotunda at Ranelagh, but without any support in the middle, is allotted for the dances of the burghers, and other persons who have not been presented at court. In the summer-season, when the court is out of town, there are scarcely any public spectacles at Petersburg, except at the Imperial Palace, where a French and Russian comedy are performed generally once a week. Boxing-matches are very favourite diversions among the common people: they generally assemble to the number of three or four hundred, and divide themselves into two parties, each of which chooses a chief, who calls out the combatants, and pits them against each other. They do not strip, as with us, but have on thick leathern gloves; from the stiffness of the leather they can scarcely double their fists, so that many of them strike open-handed. Their attitudes are very different from those used by boxers in England; they advance the left foot and side, stretch the left arm towards the adversary, in order to repel his blows, and keep the right arm swinging at some distance from the other. They generally strike in a circular direction, at the face and head, never attack the breast or sides, and seem to have no notion of aiming a blow directly forward. When any combatant falls his antagonist to the ground, he is declared victor, and the contest between that pair immediately ceases. Their mode of fighting prevents any mischief from its exertion; nor do we, therefore, often see any of those fractures and contusions, in which boxing-matches in England so frequently terminate.

Mr. Wraxall was a spectator of one of their amusements, which not a little surprised him; that of a promiscuous bathing of more than two hundred persons of both sexes. There are several of these public bathing-places in Petersburg, where every one pays a few copecs, or halfpence, for admittance, and bathes once or twice a week. There are, indeed, separate places for the men and women; but they seem regardless of this distinction, and sit or bathe promiscuously, quite naked. They go first into a room, heated to such a degree that it is scarcely possible to breathe in it; and, after staying in this room till they are in a strong perspiration, either plunge into the river Nèva, or throw a quantity of cold water over them from little buckets kept for the purpose.

Stehlin, who resided a long time in Russia, and

and who turned his attention to the study of the national music, gives the following information on this subject. The general music that prevails among the common people in Russia, from the Duna to the Amur and the Frozen Ocean, consists in one species of simple melody, which admits of infinite variation, according to the ability of the singer, or the custom of the several provinces in this extensive empire. The words of the songs are mostly in prose, and often extempore, according to the immediate invention or recollection of the singer, perhaps an ancient legend, the history of an enormous giant, a declaration of love, a dialogue between a lover and his mistress, a murder, or a beautiful girl; sometimes, they are merely letters and syllables, taken from some old accident, metrically arranged, but seldom in rhyme, and adapted to this general air: these latter words are chiefly used by mothers, in singing to their children; while boors, at the same time, perform their national dance to the same tune, accompanied with instrumental music. The subject of the song also frequently alludes to the former adventures of the singer, or his present situation; and the peasants will adapt the topics of their common discourse, and their disputes with each other, to this general air, which, altogether, forms an extraordinary effect, and leads one to suppose that they chaunt their ordinary conversation.

The mode of travelling in Russia is very singular. Their common carriages are called *ki-bitkis*, which are a kind of small carts, capable of containing two persons abreast, while the driver sits on the further extremity, close to the horses' tails. It is formed like a child's cradle, about five feet long, and the hinder part covered with a tilt, made of laths, and interwoven with birch-bark, but open in front: there is not a piece of iron in the whole machine. It has no springs, and is fastened together by wooden pins, ropes, and sticks, to the four wheels, the boxes of which are of an extraordinary length, and project above a foot beyond the orbit of the wheels. The Russians, when they travel in these carriages, place a feather-bed in the bottom, and, with this precaution, the roughness of the roads is not felt; and a traveller, stretched on this bed, may doze away a journey in perfect tranquillity; and that he may know how far he travels, each verst, or three-fourths of an English mile, is marked all through the high roads of Russia, by a post twelve feet high, painted red.

In winter, people travel on sledges, of which there are several kinds in this country; some entirely close, others quite open, some between both: the latter sort are also shaped like a cradle; its tilt, which rises from the hinder part, and pro-

jects about two feet, is open in front, but has curtains. The outside is secured with matting and oil-skin, and the inside with coarse cloths. Within is a mattress, feather-bed, and coverlid, or quilt, of coarse cloth. In this machine the traveller sometimes lies down at full length, sometimes sits up cross-legged like a Turk, and at other times sits on cushions. This sledge is drawn by two horses abreast, or one before the other, according to the width of the roads it is to pass; and the usual rate of travelling is from six to eight miles an hour. The motion of this carriage over the beaten snow is easy, and almost imperceptible. Most of the roads from Petersburg towards Sweden, through Wiburg, are scarcely a yard wide, sunk two or three feet below the level of the snow; and though the path itself is beaten and hard, yet if two such carriages meet, and one has to turn out for the other, the horses that turn out will sink in the untrodden snow up to their girths.

The great road from Moscow to Petersburg is continued, during a space of 500 miles, almost in a straight line, cut through a forest, and is extremely tedious; on each side the trees are cleared away to the breadth of forty or fifty paces; and the whole way lies chiefly through vast tracts of wood, only broken by villages, round which, to a small distance, the grounds are open and cultivated. This road is of an uniform breadth, and formed in the following manner:—Trunks of trees are laid handsomely in rows, parallel to each other, and are bound down in the centre, and at each end, by long poles or beams, fastened into the ground with wooden pegs; these trunks are sometimes covered with boards like a flooring, and sometimes with layers of boughs, strewed over with sand or earth. Hanway has made a calculation, and says, that 100 miles of such road takes up 2,100,000 trees. Whilst the road is new, it is remarkably good; but, as the trunks decay, or sink, or as the sand or ground is washed off, as is the case often for miles together, it is full of holes and ridges, and, of course, very rough to travel on. The villages, which occasionally line this route, are all like each other; a single street, with wooden cottages, and here and there a brick house.

Manners, &c. of the other Inhabitants of Russia in Europe.—The inhabitants of Russian Poland are, like those recently described, of Slavonic original. They are, in general, tall and vigorous; possessing superior gracefulness and greater docility of disposition than their northern neighbours. Their general physiognomy consists of a small mouth, thin lips, white teeth, small eyes, a low forehead, the nose commonly small, and turned upwards, beard bushy, and hair generally

rally reddish. The expression of their countenance is gravity, with good nature or sagacity; the gait and gestures lively and impassioned. The women destroy their naturally fine complexion with paint; and their personal charms expire at an early age. Like the native Russians, the peasantry of this country are in a state of the most abject vassalage; even their lives being at the disposal of their nobles and princes. This country abounds with Jews, who, though numerous throughout Poland, seem to have fixed their head-quarters in Lithuania. "If you ask for an interpreter," says Mr. Coxe, "they bring you a Jew; if you come to an inn, the landlord is a Jew; if you want post-horses, a Jew procures them, and a Jew drives them; if you wish to purchase, a Jew is your agent; and this is, perhaps, the only country in Europe where Jews cultivate the ground. In passing through Lithuania, we frequently saw them engaged in sowing, reaping, mowing, and other works of husbandry." What is called Little Lithuania, which was acquired from Prussia by the treaty of Tilsit, was settled in 1790, under Frederick the Great, by French and Swiss Protestants, through whose skill and industry this once desolate country has been extremely well cultivated.

The Fins are now a very extensive proportion of the existing population of this empire; as the whole of their extensive country, as already related, has recently become subject to Russia. But, exclusive of this, the greater part of the inhabitants of the northern provinces, from the White Sea to the Uralian mountains, and for a considerable extent towards the south, as far as the government of Perm, are of Finnish extraction; though they are now, in these parts, much blended with the Slavons, and have generally adopted their manners and customs. In the governments of Olonetz, Viborg, Finland, and Russian Lapland, they still form a distinct race. They are rather short in stature, with flat faces, deep cheeks, dark grey eyes, a thin beard, tawney hair, and a sallow complexion; but the southern Fins, though they retain the national features, are of superior appearance. They are all of a strong make; and were it not for their excessive propensity to drinking strong liquors, would be remarkably healthy. Their dress consists of woollen *kaftans*, worn short to the knee, with loose pantaloons and boots; occasionally, by way of finery, a sort of embroidered decoration adorns their upper garments; their caps are invariably of the same shape,—round, with a broad rim turned up on all sides. "The very beggars of other countries," says Mr. Acerbi, "live at ease and even in luxury, compared with the peasantry of the north. But they are a far happier and

more respectable race than the poor of more civilized countries. They are industrious; and their labour can always procure for them enough to support life with comfort; that abject degree of poverty being unknown there, which destroys industry by destroying hope. They have a singular mode of fishing. When the fisherman observes a fish under the ice in shallow water, he strikes the ice forcibly immediately over the fish with a club, when the fish, stupified by the blow, rises to the surface. They use a spear to kill the bear, or, as they call him, *the old man in the pelisse*." The inhabitants of the maritime coasts on the gulf of Bothnia are mostly of Swedish origin, and in the trading towns affect the Swedish manners and dress: but in the interior parts of the country the Fins still retain their ancient manners and customs, and particularly towards the north. They are extremely fond of poetry which is alliterative, without rhyme. Mr. Acerbi has translated several odes, which certainly indicate great natural parts; but, owing to one cause or other, poetry is rapidly falling into disuse among them. The Fins are very superstitious, having great faith in charms, incantations, and verses, which are supposed to possess the power of chasing away diseases; but the introduction of Christianity among them will, no doubt, soon eradicate many of these superstitions.

The Samoiedes were once a numerous nation of Tartars in Asia, but are now strangely dispersed in small detachments nearly over the whole Russian empire. Some are supposed even to be within the Chinese frontier; while others are scattered along the shores of the Frozen Ocean, nearly as far to the west as Archangel, but chiefly to the north of the Ural mountains, and the east of Petchora. In this cold region they no longer retain the use of horses, because the climate renders their subsistence impossible; but they still observe the manners of a pastoral life, and make use of moveable habitations, with which they wander from place to place. They are shorter and thicker than the Laplanders, whom in other respects they very much resemble. They have little hair, and cover their heads with a fur cap. Their clothing is made of the skins of various animals; and over their shoulders they throw a black bear's skin, with the feet hanging at the four corners. On their feet they wear a kind of skates, two feet long, with which they glide with prodigious swiftness over the frozen snow that incessantly covers their mountains. The women are capable of bearing great fatigue, and assiduously breed up their children in the use of the bow, which they handle with great dexterity. Their dress

is similar to that of the men, except about the head, from whence a lock of twisted hair hangs down to their shoulders; and in this consists their finery. They hunt with their husbands, and are equally expert in the use of their weapons. Conjugal fidelity is strictly observed; and the punishment annexed to the violation of it on either side is death. They have no notion of a Supreme Being, but use as idols the heads of beasts of prey, particularly those of bears, which they put up in the woods, and fervently worship. Their priests are chosen from among such as are advanced in years; and they imagine that these can reveal to them the will of the gods, and foretell future events.

Samoiedes, in the Russian language, signifies men-eaters; a term which denotes the barbarity of the people. But there is no good reason to believe that the term can be applied to them in its worst acceptation. It was probably derived from the custom they have of eating their meat raw, and not of devouring their deceased friends or prisoners, as they have been accused. These people are extremely dirty in their persons and habits; their marriages are attended with no other ceremony than a verbal agreement; and they always call their new-born infant by the name of the first animal they meet with after its birth. They neither have, nor appear to have ever had, any particular form of government.

The Cossacks, or Kozaks, are a people originally inhabiting the confines of Russia, Poland, Tartary, and Turkey. They are divided into several distinct tribes, both in Europe and Asia, in the former of which they are principally distinguished as the Cossacks of the Ukraine, whose country now forms the Russian government of Catharinoslav. The Cossacks are large and robust, have blue eyes, brown hair, and aquiline noses. The women are fair, tolerably handsome, and very complaisant to strangers. But this people are chiefly remarkable as composing the principal part of the cavalry in the Russian armies. The common men among these troopers have no pay; and their officers have but a very moderate allowance. They are obliged to furnish themselves with horses, arms, and clothing; and nothing is furnished them except oatmeal and flour: hence those hideous tatters with which most of them are covered, when they have no opportunity of plundering, which gives them the appearance of beggars and robbers; and hence the murders, robberies, fire, and rapine, which every where mark their passage. However formidable these troopers may be to their neighbours, the Turks and Tartars, yet we find, from the campaign of 1807, that they could effect

little or nothing against the regularly trained French cavalry.

The Crimea is inhabited by three descriptions of Tartars. The first of these are called Nagays, and are a remnant of that numerous horde formerly called Kubanian Tartars, from their inhabiting the district of Kuban, to the east of the sea of Asoph. They live in small huts, constructed of felt, which cannot be taken down, but are placed by men on carriages, and thus removed from place to place. These people possess more activity and vivacity than the other inhabitants of Taurida; but they are also more rapacious and ungovernable, and retain a strong predilection for a wandering life.

The second class of Crimean inhabitants consists of those Tartars that inhabit the beaths, or *steppes*, who chiefly devote themselves to the rearing of cattle, and the cultivation of the ground. In situations destitute of stone, they build their houses of unbaked bricks of clay, and make use of dry dung as fuel. They are handsome, tall, robust people; but few are inclined to corpulency. Their complexion is rather fair; and their hair black, or dark brown.

The third class of the Crimean inhabitants comprehends the natives of the southern vallies, and the different persons who have been induced from commercial motives to settle in this country from almost every nation of Europe. These produce a curious admixture of manners and customs. Polygamy rarely occurs here, even among the nobles and wealthy inhabitants, though there are a few who incur themselves with two wives; but the nobility support a number of idle dependents, and a variety of Circassian female slaves, for the sale of whom there is a public market at Theodosia. Mr. Kluman, of Vienna, one of the latest travellers of credit, in his voyage to the Crimea, has given us the following account of it.

"These female slaves, when brought to market, are locked up in a small private apartment. When there," says he, "I was desirous of seeing some, and spoke to the salesman for that purpose. One of them was, consequently, brought out to me, into a room where I was waiting. She was well dressed, but her face was veiled: she kissed my hand, agreeable to the eastern custom; and her master ordered her to walk to and fro. She was elegant in the extreme; when she unveiled her face, she absolutely enchanted me, so inexpressible was her beauty. Her hair was light, her eyes full and blue, her nose a little long, her lips lovely, her features regular, her complexion white and soft, and her cheeks tinged with a fine carmine; she had a long neck, and a fine bosom completed the charms of her person. She was desired:

desired to wipe her face with a white handkerchief, to shew me her beauty was not owing to paint. She then shewed her teeth, which were white and regular. I was allowed to feel her pulse, in order to be convinced of her health. After this, she was ordered to withdraw. The Armenian, who had the disposal of her, assured me, she was 18 years old, and yet an unspotted virgin. Her price was 4000 piastres, or about £125 English, which he said was the value of such a slave. Having viewed this girl, another was brought out to me, and underwent a similar examination.

“As the rich can only make such purchases, these victims to voluptuousness stand a fair chance of being better provided for than they would have been at home. This kind of traffic appears shocking to those of refined sentiments, who seek, in marriage, for a faithful and inseparable companion, the equal sharer of their good or bad fortune; but in other societies, less civilized, we find they are considered in no other light than as administering to the sensual pleasures.

Population.—The population of Russia is so diffuse, and spread over so wide an extent of territory, that very opposite opinions have been entertained concerning it. By most writers it was estimated at about 25,000,000; and it was at the same time supposed that the recent acquisitions in Poland might add 5,000,000 to the amount. But in a late publication, Mr. William Tooke, who long resided in Russia, and appears to have been intimately acquainted with the original documents concerning this empire, has given new elucidations of this important subject. He observes that, in order to collect the capitation tax, enumerations of the people have been made at intervals of 20 years since 1723. On the first enumeration, the persons subject to the tax were stated at 5,794,928: this number was always upon the increase; and, in 1763, was supposed to yield data for the computation of 20,000,000 as the total population of the empire. But in 1783 more exact estimates were prepared; and in the vice-royalties, then composing the empire, the statement of male inhabitants was as follows:

Merchants	107,408
Burghers	293,793
Odnodvortzi, and free countrymen	773,656
Exempt from taxes	310,830
Crown boors	4,674,603
Private boors	6,678,239
	12,838,529

The number of females being supposed to equal that of the males, a population would arise

of 25,677,000. The most important accession to the Russian population arises from the partitions of Poland, which, with small acquisitions from the Porte, have been thus stated:

At the first partition of Poland in 1773	1,226,966
From the Porte in 1774 and 1783 . . .	171,610
From the Porte in 1791	42,708
At the second partition of Poland, 1793	3,745,663
By the subjection of Courland	387,922
At the third partition of Poland, 1795	1,407,402
	6,982,271

Mr. Tooke afterwards proceeds to give the following account, drawn up, as he assures us, with the greatest nicety of examination, and presenting the whole population of the empire in 1799:—

By the revision of 1783, there were, computing the female sex as equal to the male, of registered persons	25,677,000
The amount of the Cossacks of the Don and Euxine, according to the most authentic accounts, at least .	220,000
For the unnumbered tribes and classes at the time of the fourth revision, we cannot, without the highest improbability, allow less than . . .	1,500,000

Consequently the Russian empire, }
in the year 1783, might have inhabitants amounting altogether to } 27,397,000

According to the results deduced from experiments and observations on the fruitfulness and mortality in Russia, this mass must of itself have increased annually more than half a million. But, in order to keep as far as possible from all exaggeration, if we deduct the half of this surplus of births, to allow for the diminution it may have suffered by an extraordinary mortality, as by war, there remains by every year an increase of 250,000 new citizens, which, exclusively of all ascending proportion, in 12 years, makes a total of	3,000,000
The new acquisitions from Poland since the year 1783, according to a legitimated statement already mentioned	5,755,000

Consequently we may admit, by the most moderate estimate, the population of the Russian empire, }
at present, to be } 36,152,000

Or, in a round sum, thirty-six millions of persons;

sons; or about 318 persons to each German square mile, which is equal to four English.

Of this population Mr. Tooke assigns only about three millions and a half to Siberia, or Asiatic Russia; so that we might, perhaps, allow even 33,000,000 for the population of European Russia*.

Religion.—The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are very numerous and complicated; but the great article of faith by which that church has been so long separated from the Latin or Roman Catholic church, is the doctrine that the Holy Spirit does not proceed from the Father and the Son, but from the Father only. They deny the pope's supremacy; and though they disclaim image-worship, retain many idolatrous and superstitious customs. Their churches are full of pictures of saints, whom they consider as mediators. They observe a number of fasts and lents, so that they live half the year very abstemiously; an institution which is extremely convenient for the soil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the sacraments. They oblige their bishops, but not their priests, to celibacy. Peter the Great shewed his profound knowledge in government in nothing more than in the reformation of this church. He broke the dangerous powers of the clergy, and declared himself the head of the church, in the stead of a patriarch, who was originally at the head of this church, and enjoyed all the powers of the Roman pope. The Russian hierarchy, at present, consists of three metropolitans, seven archbishops, and eighteen bishops; the whole number of ecclesiastics is computed at 67,900, and the churches at 18,350. Their priests have no fixed income, but depend for subsistence on the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after establishing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full possession of all their ceremonies; nor did he cut off their beards: that impolitic attempt was reserved for the emperor Peter III. and greatly contributed to his fatal catastrophe. Before his time, an incredible number of both sexes were shut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to abolish those societies. The abuses of them, however, are, in a great measure, removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of 30, and no female a nun till she is 50; and even then not without permission of their superiors.

The conquered provinces retain the exercise of their own religion; but such is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its subjects are

Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, in the uncultivated countries. Many attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa is a flourishing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta; the beginning of the settlement was in 1765, with distinguished privileges from the imperial court.

The nuptial ceremonies of the Russians are peculiar to themselves; and formerly consisted of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now disused. When the parents have agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never seen each other, the bride is critically examined by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defect they find in her person. On her wedding-day she is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the priest has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or sexton throws a handful of hops upon her head, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarse and indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even amongst the lower ranks.

The Russians entertain many fantastic notions with regard to the state of departed souls. After the dead body is dressed, a priest is hired to pray for the soul, to purify the corpse with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water, while it remains above ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket signed by the bishop and another clergyman, as the deceased's passport to heaven. This is put into the coffin, between the fingers of the corpse; after which the company return to the deceased's house, where they drown their sorrow in intoxication, which lasts, with a few intervals, forty days. During that time a priest every day recites prayers over the grave of the deceased; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer on his long journey, to the place of his destination after this life.

Trade and Manufacture.—The commerce of Russia was known in the middle ages, by the connection between the Hans Towns, in the north of Germany, and Novogorod, established about 1276. So wide is now this empire, that it maintains a commerce of the most remote descriptions, on the Baltic and the White Sea, the

* Sir John Carr, in his *Northern Summer*, estimates the population of this vast empire at 40,000,000, which is evidently not now an exaggeration, particularly since the annexation of Finland, and a part of Prussian Poland.

Euxine and the Caspian, with Persia and with China. The English having (so to speak) discovered Russia in the 16th century, the Czar Ivan Basilowitz, delighted with this new intercourse, caused a harbour to be constructed on the White Sea, where the English arrived, which was called the harbour of the Archangel Michael, and afterwards, for brevity, Archangel. This commerce continued till Petersburg was founded; yet Archangel still affords a moderate trade.

But, in giving a general view of the commerce of the Russian empire, it will be necessary first to enumerate the exports and imports. The former are very numerous and valuable, consisting of furs, peltry, leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, sail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, isinglass, linseed oil, pot-ash, soap, feathers, train-oil, hogs' bristles, musk, rhubarb and other drugs, timber, and also raw silk from China and Persia.

From the above enumeration it will appear, that a very great proportion of the exports consists of raw materials, or the unmanufactured produce of the country; and, indeed, the employment of the nation, much as it has been improved within the 18th century, is still directed more to production than manufacture: this is the natural progress of all human society advancing towards civilization.

The buying up and conveyance of the before-mentioned articles from the remote and midland regions of the empire forms an important branch of the internal commerce. A great part of these products is raised on the fertile shores of the Wolga; and this inestimable river, which, in its course, aided by its tributary streams, connects the most distant provinces, is, at the same time, the channel of business and industry to almost the whole country. Wherever its waters lave the rich and fertile coast, diligence and industry have fixed their abode; and its course marks the progress of internal civilization. The navigation between the Caspian and the Baltic Seas is performed, according to the season of the year, from three to six weeks; and it is supposed that near 4000 vessels pass the Ladoga canal annually.

Besides the trade which is greatly accommodated by this navigation, Russia has an extensive commerce over-land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs; and they bring back from thence tea, silk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bucharia, near the river Oxus, in Tartary, Russia sends her own merchandise, in return for Indian silks, curled lamb-skins, and ready money; and also to the annual fair at Samarcand; she likewise trades to Persia by Astracan across the Caspian Sea, for raw and wrought silk. The empress Catharine, in 1784, issued an edict, permitting all foreigners

to carry on a free trade by sea and land with the several countries bordering on the Black Sea.

The principal imports into this country are silken stuffs, woollen stuffs, cotton stuffs, cloth, silk and cotton stockings, trinkets, watches, hardware, looking-glasses, glass, earthenware, groceries, French brandy, wines, English malt liquor, paper, books, alum, indigo, cochineal, scythes, &c. &c.

Nearly one half of the whole trade of this vast empire is found, from the most accurate calculations, to centre in St. Petersburg, where, by an estimate taking the average of ten years, from 1780 to 1790, the annual amounts of the exports and imports were as follows:

Exports	13,961,942 rubles.
Imports	12,238,319

Profit 1,023,623

From which it appears, that at the above period the balance of trade was upwards of one million of rubles annually in favour of Russia. At the beginning of the present century the amounts were much increased; but the foreign commerce of Russia has suffered severely since the rupture with England.

The commerce of St. Petersburg is carried on chiefly by commission in the hands of factors. This class of merchants, which consists almost entirely of foreigners, forms the most respectable and considerable part of the persons on the exchange. The merchants from the remote parts of the interior, repair at a stated season to the metropolis, where they bargain with the factors for the sale of their commodities. This done, they enter into contracts to deliver the goods, according to the particulars therein specified; at which time they commonly receive the half or the whole of the purchase money, though the goods are not to be delivered till the following spring or summer by the barks down the Ladoga canal. The quality of the goods is then to be pronounced upon by sworn brokers, or sorters; and, if agreeable to contract, the remainder of the money is paid, or the value given in imported goods.

The merchandise furnished from the various provinces, except such as is retailed at St. Petersburg, is forwarded to Cronstadt for exportation, or to that part of Petersburg which is known by the name of Vassiliostrof, where are the exchange, the custom-house, the hemp warehouses, and magazines, in which the riches of so many countries are bartered and kept. In all the other parts of the city the tumult of business is so rare and imperceptible, that a stranger who should be suddenly conveyed hither, would never imagine

gine that he was in the chief commercial city of the Russian empire.

Among the manufactures of Russia the imperial establishments are distinguished for the magnitude of their plan, and the richness and excellence of their productions. The tapestry manufactory, which weaves both hangings and carpeting, is not to be exceeded in any other country; and the circumstance that at present only native Russians are employed, enhances the value and curiosity of the establishment. The royal porcelain manufactory likewise, excepting the modellers and arcanists, contains none but Russian workmen, amounting to upwards of 400. Besides these, many other imperial manufactures, such as chamber-stoves, bronze, &c. are carried on in various places, a description of which would lead us beyond our limits. The number of private manufactories in Petersburg amount to about 100; the principal articles which they manufacture are leather, paper, gold, silver, sugar, silk, tobacco, distilled water, wool, glass, clay, cotton, and chintz. There are 16 tan-works, and about the same number of paper-hanging manufactories, 12 gold and silver thread-houses, 8 sugar-houses, 5 letter-foundries, and a looking-glass manufactory, where the glasses are produced of a most enormous size, and of the first quality. Besides these, several others are conducted with considerable spirit. That of isinglass, which is a preparation of the sounds, or air-bladder, of the sturgeon, flourishes on the Volga, the chief seat also of that of caviar, consisting of the salted roes of large fish. The manufactures of oil and soap are also considerable; and Petersburg exports great quantities of candles, besides tallow, which abounds in an empire so well replenished with pasturage: nor must the breweries and distilleries be forgotten. There are several manufactories of paper, and of tobacco, which grows abundantly in the southern provinces. Linen is manufactured in abundance, the best comes from the government of Archangel. The silk manufactories are numerous: coarse cloth, carpets, and hats, are also made in Russia; and leather has long been a staple commodity. The mode of making Russian leather is described with great minuteness by Mr. Tooke. Shagreen is made of chosen portions of the hides of the horse and ass, impressed with the hard seeds of certain plants, which are trodden in to mark the leather. Russia produces vast quantities of wax, which is, however, generally exported unbleached; and there are fabrics of earthenware and porcelain. Iron foundries abound; and in the northern government of Olonetz is a grand foundry of cannon.

Language, and present State of Literature and

the Arts.—The common language of Russia is a mixture of the Polish and Slavonian; their priests, however, and the most learned clergy, make use of what is called modern Greek; and they who are acquainted with the ancient language in its purity, may easily acquire the knowledge of it in its corrupted state. The Russians have 36 letters, the forms of which have a strong resemblance to the old Greek alphabet, though several are peculiar to the Russian. Among other singularities, there is one character to express *sch*, and another *ssch*; which latter sound is said to be scarcely capable of enunciation, except by the most barbarous of the Russian natives. The Russian Paternoster is as follows:

Otshe nash, eje esi na nebesech; da svyatitsya imya tvoye; da priedet tzartvye tvoye; da boodet volya tvoya, yaka no nebesee na zemle; ehleb nash nasoooshnie dajd nani dnes; ee ostaveenam dolje nasha yakoe ee me ostavlyаем doljnee-kom nashim: ee ne vovede nas vo iskooshenie, no eezbave nas ot loocavago; yako tvoe est tzarstvo, ee secla, ee slava, vo vekoe vekov. Amen.

The Russians have hitherto made but an inconsiderable figure in the republic of letters; but the great encouragement lately given by their sovereigns, in the institution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced sufficient proofs that they are no way deficient in intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe, especially those that relate to astronomy, the mathematics, and natural philosophy. The speeches pronounced by the bishop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marshal, at the opening of the commission for a new code of laws, are elegant and classical; and the progress which learning has made in that empire since the beginning of this century, with the specimens of literature published both at Petersburg and Moscow, is an evidence that the Russians are not unqualified to shine in the arts and sciences. The efforts to civilize them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A small glimmering, like the first day-break, was seen under the czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conspicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz; but under Peter it burst forth with the splendour of a rising sun, and has continued ever since to ascend towards its meridian.

With respect to classical literature, the Greek language is taught in very few schools, is scarcely known to the laity, and is a rare qualification even among the regular clergy. Latin is more common, being understood by many of the regular clergy, and not unfrequently cultivated by persons of improved education. Many of the classics have been translated by natives into the Russian.

Russian tongue. Several editions of the most approved Greek and Roman authors have been published at Moscow and Petersburg; but the editors have been chiefly foreigners, encouraged by the Russian nobility. Some of the bishops, however, are men of profound learning.

Since the accession of the present emperor Alexander, the literature of Russia has undergone a material improvement. Incredible, indeed, were the genius-destroying restrictions and edicts under the reign of Paul, the state of whose mind, continually tormented with suspicion, has been drawn by Kotzebue, in his work entitled *The most remarkable Year of his Life*, of which a Russian translation has been published. Several valuable works have lately appeared; and the book-trade, which had been almost entirely annihilated, has, for the most part, broken the iron fetters imposed upon it.

Peter the Great established three universities at Moscow, which, for a series of years, do not appear to have met with deserved success, but which now, under the auspices of the present emperor, have begun to revive. During the long reign of Catharine II. she was principally engaged in erecting the university of Petersburg, which is a noble instance of munificence. Besides the above, the new university at Dorpt, in the government of St. Petersburg, which has already cost the nobility of this, and the province of Revel (near the borders of which it is situated), upwards of 100,000 rubles, has recently been established by authority. Several learned men were invited from foreign countries to fill the professional chairs; and some of them were arrived, and had taken upon themselves their respective departments, in 1802. The imperial military college, which has likewise been recently erected at Dorpt, has received great favour and support from the emperor, who has revoked the edicts of his father, and given full permission to his subjects to visit foreign schools and universities.

In 1804 the emperor established a new university at Charkov, or Kharkof, the capital of the province of that name, situated to the north of Catharinoslav, for the cultivation and diffusion of the arts and sciences in this part of the empire. Mr. Fletcher Campbell, a Scotch gentleman, was employed to procure masters for this new institution. Some time afterwards the emperor ordered that meteorological observations should be regularly made at all the universities and public schools, and the results published. In 1805 an imperial ukase was issued, granting to the Jews a complete emancipation from the shackles under which that devoted people had long groaned, and allowing

them the privileges of educating their children in any of the various public schools which the Empress Catharine founded throughout the empire, or to establish schools for themselves at their own expence.

The arts in Russia have received very considerable improvements within the last fifty years; and most of those that relate to luxuries are exercised at St. Petersburg to such extent and perfection as to render it unnecessary to import these articles from other countries. The chief works of this kind are those of gold and silver goods. Coach-making is also here a very flourishing trade, a number of elegant and highly finished carriages having been recently constructed, inferior in no respect to those of Paris or London. But, notwithstanding this, so fond are most persons of foreign commodities, that a carriage of Russian make, though of equal taste and durability, will not fetch more than half the amount of one of English or French manufacture. Joinery is exercised as well by the Russians as foreigners in their large towns; but the cabinet-makers' work is nearly wholly confined to the Germans, who, to their honour, have executed some of the finest specimens of this kind of fabrication extant, particularly the model of a bridge worked in mahogany, for which the Empress Catharine II. presented the artificer with 4000 rubles. Yet, however curious this piece of ingenuity, it has been greatly exceeded by a writing-desk executed by a native of Moravia, who resided many years in Russia. In this writing-desk the genius of the inventor has lavished its riches and its fertility in the greatest variety of compositions. All seems the work of enchantment. On opening this amazing desk, in front appears a beautiful group of basso-relievos in bronze, superbly gilt; which, by the slightest pressure on a spring, vanishes away, giving place to a magnificent writing-flat inlaid with gems. The space above this flat is devoted to the keeping of valuable papers or money. The bold hand that should dare to invade this spot would immediately be its own betrayer; for at the least touch of the table-part, the most charming strains of soft and melodious music begin to play upon the ear, the organ whence it proceeds occupying the lower part of the desk behind. Several small drawers for holding the materials for writing, &c. likewise start forward, by the pressure of their springs, and shut again as quickly, without leaving a trace of their existence. By touching other peculiar parts, this wonderful machine assumes the form of a beautiful reading-desk with the most wondrous velocity. The inventor offered this rare and invaluable piece to the Empress Catharine II. for 20,000 rubles; but she generously

generously presented him with 25,000, as a recompence for his great skill and industry. Her majesty presented this matchless piece of art to the Academy of Sciences, in whose museum it still remains. Tooke's *Catharine II.* vol. i. p. 50.

Naval and Military Strength.—The navy of Russia is respectable; but since her rupture with England, has nearly become useless. In 1792 their fleet in the Baltic consisted of 50 ships of the line, of which eight were of 110 guns, and the rest of 74 and 66; 27 frigates of 28, 32, and 38 guns, 50 galleys, 300 gun-boats, 16 fire-ships, and other smaller vessels; besides a fleet in the Black Sea, consisting of 17 ships of the line, and a still greater number of frigates, corvettes, &c. 20,000 sailors are kept in constant pay and service, either on board the ships or in the dock-yards. The harbour at Cronstadt, seven leagues from Petersburg, is defended on one side by a fort of four bastions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large basin will contain near 600 sail of ships.

The Russians are said to be averse to a sea-faring life; but the sailors are extremely brave. In point of neatness the Russian ships are inferior to any other European nation.

The Russian empire appears to possess a very large disposable armed force. Their number was formerly estimated at 400,000, or 450,000 men. Mr. Tooke computes the whole amount of the Russian troops at 600,000, of which 500,000 may be esteemed effective. But it is supposed that not less than 150,000 are necessary in the garrisons scattered over this vast and heterogeneous empire; so that if Russia sent forth her whole military force, it would hardly exceed 350,000, of which about 30,000 might be Cossacks. The Russian troops are remarkable for a kind of steady fanaticism, which renders their retreat almost impossible; but they are more accustomed to open and direct combat than to the grand manœuvres of war. In weight and consistence they somewhat resemble the Spartan phalanx, which was forced to yield to the superior agility and rapidity of the Roman legion.

The Russian armies are raised with little or no expence; and, while in their own country, subsist chiefly on provisions furnished them by the country people, according to their internal valuation. The pay of a soldier scarcely amounts to thirty shillings yearly; in garrison he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a sailor and a gunner is a ruble a month; and they are found with provisions when on shore.

Revenues.—Nothing certain can be said concerning the revenues of this extensive empire; but they are undoubtedly, at present, far superior to what

they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vast exertions for promoting industry, made by his successors, must have greatly added to their income, which many years ago, was little less than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly £6,000,000 sterling annually, thus computed:

	Rubles.
Capitation tax	8,560,000
Other taxes and duties	7,000,000
The crown-lands, with other domains taken from the clergy	6,000,000
Produce of the mines	1,500,000
Monopoly of distilled liquors	4,000,000
Monopoly of salt	1,800,000
	29,800,000

According to Mr. Pleschke's computation, the revenues of Russia exceed forty millions of rubles; and the expences, even in time of war, are said not to amount to 30,000,000. The two French travellers, who were in Russia in 1792, estimate (though from what source we cannot ascertain) the whole revenue of the empire to have been little less than 60,000,000 of rubles, or nearly 12,000,000 sterling. But Mr. Tooke, from the most correct intelligence he could procure, has estimated the whole annual revenue at 46,000,000 of rubles; though he is rather inclined to think that it may a little exceed that sum. When this sum is considered relatively, according to the high value of money in this empire, and compared to its low value in Great Britain, it will be found a very considerable revenue. It does not appear that this revenue is diminished by any national debt.

Laws, &c.—In the earlier Russian periods the empire was regulated by no other laws than the will of the sovereign, as promulgated in his ukases. The first Russian code was published by Ivan IV. in the 16th century. They contain rather the arbitrary orders of that monarch than such regulations as might have been the result of the deliberations of a national assembly. This code was much improved by succeeding monarchs; but it still continued very imperfect, and in many instances barbarous and unjust, being an assemblage of laws and regulations drawn from most of the states of Europe, ill-digested, and in many respects not at all adapted to the genius of the Russian nation. The empress Catharine II. made some attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of justice were in general very corrupt, and those by whom it was administered extremely ignorant; but the judicious regulations of Catharine fixed a certain salary to the office of judge,

judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients; and thus the poor were without hope or remedy.

In 1775 Catharine produced an entirely new code, possessing, at the same time, great simplicity and uniformity. By that *reglement* she divided the whole empire into governments, as already mentioned, placing over each a governor-general with very considerable powers. She divided each province into districts; and, for the better administration of justice, erected in them various courts of law, civil, criminal, and commercial, analogous to those found in other countries. She established, likewise, in every province, a court of conscience, and in every district a chamber for the protection of orphans. Amidst so many wise institutions, a chamber for the imperial revenues was not forgotten in each province, and a tribunal of police in each district. The duty of the governor-general of a province, who is a guardian of the laws, is to see that the various judges and tribunals in his government discharge their respective duties, to protect the oppressed, and to enforce the administration of the laws. It is his business, likewise, to see that the taxes are regularly paid; that the proper number of troops be kept up, and that they be attentive to their duty.

This *reglement* comprehends other institutions, as well as many directions for the conducting of law-suits in the different courts. But the general want of morals in every order of men throughout this vast empire, must make the wisest regulations of little avail. Russia is, perhaps, the only country in Europe where the law is not an incorporated profession, there being no seminaries where a practitioner may be educated. Any man who will pay the fees of office may become an attorney; and any man who can find a client may plead at the bar. The judges are not more learned than the pleaders, not being at all qualified for their office by any kind of education; nor are they chosen from among those who necessarily have attended courts, and been in the practice of pleading. A general, from a successful campaign, may be instantly placed at the head of a court of judicature; and, in the absence of the court from St. Petersburg, the commanding officer in that city presides, *ex officio*, in the high courts of justice.

The Russians are remarkable for the severity and variety of their punishments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers, upon the Wolga and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to the ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death, hundreds at a time. The single

and double knout have been inflicted upon ladies as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knout the hands are bound behind the prisoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the dislocation of both his shoulders; and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner with a hard thong cut from a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment it should cease. It is not always the number of the strokes, but the method of inflicting them, which occasions the death of a criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four strokes, by striking him upon the ribs; though persons are sometimes recovered in a few weeks, who have received 300 strokes moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out of the tongue are likewise practised in Russia; and even the empress Elizabeth, though she prohibited capital punishments, was forced to give way to the supposed necessity of those tortures.

According to the strict letter of the law, there are no capital punishments in Russia, except in case of high treason; but there is much less humanity in this than has been supposed: for there are many felons who expire under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journies to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines; so that there is reason to believe, that not fewer criminals suffer death in Russia, than in those countries where capital punishments are authorised by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and foreheads marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vishnei-Volotchok, and other places; but the common practice is to send them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerzhink. There are, upon an average, from 1600 to 2000 convicts at these mines. The greatest part are confined in barracks, excepting those who are married; the latter being permitted to build huts near the mines for themselves and families. The prohibition of the torture does honour to the late empress Catharine II.

Government.—The government of Russia appears to have been always despotic; and, as already observed, we can find no trace of any legislative power different from that of the sovereign; as what is called the senate is only the high court of judicature. The emperor is absolute lord and master of the lives and properties of all his subjects, who, though they are of the first nobility, or have been highly instrumental in promoting the welfare of the state, may, notwithstanding, for the most trifling offence, or
even

even without offence, be seized upon, and sent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiscated, whenever the sovereign or his ministers shall think proper. Persons of any rank may be banished into Siberia for the slightest political intrigue; and their possessions being confiscated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the insinuations of an artful courtier. The secret court of chancery, which was a tribunal composed of a few ministers chosen by the sovereign, had the lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy. But this court was suppressed by Peter III.

The greatest noblemen in Russia call themselves the emperor's slaves, and execute his commands with the most implicit obedience; and the common people revere him as something supernatural, never mentioning his name, or any thing immediately belonging to him, without marks of the most profound respect and veneration.

During the reign of Catharine II. the immediate administration of affairs was vested in her imperial majesty's council, or senate. This was composed of the principal officers and persons of the empire; viz. general field-marsbals, generals-in-chief, and actual privy-counsellors. At present they are fourteen in number; the fifteenth fills the place of a chancery director, and has a secretary under him. The vice-chancellor of the empire is a member of this council; the post of grand-chancellor being frequently suffered to remain vacant.

Royal Titles and Orders of Knighthood.—In number of titles the emperor of Russia rivals the proudest monarchs of the east, being styled, "By the grace of God, Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias, of Moscow, Kiow, Novgorod," &c. &c. going on to enumerate nearly the whole of the provinces. The emperor is commonly termed the *Czar*, or *Tzar*, a Slavonic word, signifying king or sovereign. The word *autocrat*, or *autocrator*, is a compound Greek word, signifying *self-ruler*, or *sole-ruler*.

The orders of knighthood in Russia are six in number: that of *St. Andrew* was instituted by Peter the Great in 1698, to animate his officers and nobles in his wars against the Turks, St. Andrew being said to have first introduced Christianity into this country. The order of *St. Alexander Newski* was also instituted by the same monarch, and confirmed by Catharine I. in 1725. The order of *St. Catharine* was instituted by Peter, in honour of his empress, in 1710. The order of *St. Anne of Holstein*, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great, was introduced by Peter III. The order of *St. George* was instituted by Catharine II. in favour of the

military officers in her service; and, in 1782, she introduced that of *St. Vladimir*, in favour of those who serve in a civil capacity.

SECTION III.

Summary of the History of Russia.

RUSSIA was scarcely known as an independent state before the latter end of the ninth century. We know, indeed, that as early as the fifth century a horde of wandering people settled themselves where now exists the government of Kiev, or Kiow. These people were denominated Slavi, or Slavonians, and had advanced eastward from the shores of the Danube. About the same period another tribe of this people settled still farther to the east, in the province of Novgorod, where they built the city still known by that name as their metropolis. If we may credit the Russian historians, the Slavi extended their territories as far north as the shores of the Baltic, where they were harassed by a piratical nation, who dwelt on the coasts of that sea, and who, probably, were a part of those Scandinavian nations that, under the names of Danes and Saxons, successively made themselves masters of England. They were occasionally employed by the neighbouring states as mercenary auxiliaries, and in this capacity were once called in to the assistance of the Slavi of Novgorod, where, finding the country superior to that which they had quitted, from being servants they soon became masters of the whole territory. Their principal leader, Ruric, built a town near the river Volkhof, now called Old Ladoga, and surrounded it with a rampart of earth. Here he established the seat of his government about the year 860; and from this period we may date the commencement of the Russian monarchy. The Slavi, however, did not tamely yield to their new masters, but, after a desperate struggle, were obliged to submit to the victorious Ruric, who removed the seat of his government to the city of Novgorod, and assumed the title of Grand Prince. His kingdom appears to have extended over all the present governments of Russia in Europe to the north of Novgorod. After a long reign he died, leaving only one son, a minor, under the regency of a kinsman's of his father's, named Oleg, who, possessing an enterprising spirit, made a successful attack upon the Slavi of Kief, whom he reduced to subjection, and annexed their territories to the Russian principality, thus extending its dominions to the boundaries of the Eastern or Greek empire of Constantinople. Oleg, having heard of the vast riches contained in this great city, resolved on an expedition against it. For this purpose having raised a large army, he sailed down

down the Dnieper, and, after suffering incredible hardships, unexpectedly appeared under the walls of Constantinople, of which he would most certainly have made himself master, had not the weak Leo, who then swayed the sceptre of the Grecian empire, purchased an ignominious peace. On the accession of Igor, Ruric's son, these barbarians, athirst for plunder, made fresh inroads upon their southern neighbours, who now gave them a different reception, and obliged them to return home covered with disgrace. New attempts, however, continued to be made, which at length ended in the death of Igor, who was taken prisoner and put to death, A.D. 945. A few years before this event Igor had married a princess of a bold and daring spirit, named Olga, who, as her only son was very young, assumed the reins of government; and under her administration the Christian religion was first introduced into Russia, she having undertaken a journey to Constantinople for the express purpose of being initiated in the religion of Jesus. On her return she resigned the government in favour of her son Sviatoslaf, who is generally considered as one of the Russian heroes; and if a thirst for blood, a contempt for danger, and a disregard for the luxuries of life, be admitted as the characteristics of a hero, he deserves the appellation. He made war upon the Greek empire, and was at first successful, but was ultimately defeated and slain in 973. At his death the principality was divided between his three sons, who quarrelled among themselves, and for seven years introduced into the country all the horrors of civil war. At length, in 981, by the death of his two brothers, Vladimir acquired the possession of all his father's territories, and maintained the sovereignty during a long reign, respected at home, and feared abroad. The former part of his reign was marked with blood and cruelty beyond description shocking. Yet this furious Pagan, and sanguinary warrior, afterwards became a sincere and most zealous Christian, and a shining example to his subjects of charity and benevolence. He established the Christian faith as the national religion, and died in 1015, justly entitled to the character of Great, which is given to him by all historians. He maintained the seat of his government at Kiev, of which he was styled Grand Prince; while Novgorod and other districts were tributary to the principality. Before his death he divided his territories between his twelve sons, reserving Kiev for his immediate heir. The consequences of this ill-judged division were disunion, contention, and perpetual warfare among the brothers, which induced the neighbouring princes of Poland and the Tartars to make dreadful inroads into the country, which they com-

pletely overran. From this time, for three or four centuries, the history of Russia comprises little else than intestine broils and commotions; and the country, by turns, became a prey to the Poles and Tartars. It is certain, that till the year 1450 the princes of Russia were very little considered; but at this period reigned Ivan Vasilievich, commonly called John Vasilovitz, who, by his wisdom, prudence, and invincible spirit, became both the conqueror and deliverer of his country, and laid the foundation of its present grandeur. He conquered the Tartars, and then turned his arms against the neighbouring states. The city of Novgorod had, two centuries previous to this time, formed itself into a republic, and was become so formidable, that it was proverbial to say, "Who can resist God and the Great Novgorod?" Against this city Ivan turned his arms, and reduced it after a seven years siege; it yielded him immense treasure, by some estimated at 300 cart-loads of gold, silver, and precious stones. Ivan died in 1505, and was succeeded by his son, commonly called Basilius III., under whom all the principalities of the empire were once more united. His son and successor, the famous Ivan IV., or, as he is called by the Russian historians, Ivan Vasilievich II. completely emancipated Russia from the power of the Poles and Tartars, and added an extent of territory to his kingdom, which rendered it larger than any that had appeared since the time of the Romans. Before the reign of this monarch, the Russian sovereigns took the title of *Velike Knez*, "great prince," lord, or chief, which the Christian nations afterwards rendered by that of "great or grand duke." But Ivan now assumed the title of *Czar*, or *Tzar*, the meaning of which has been already explained. Ivan, dying in 1584, was succeeded by his son Foedor (Theodore), who was by no means fitted for the government of an empire so large, and a people so rude and turbulent, as had devolved on him. This weakness was taken advantage of by his wife's brother, Boris Gudimov, who now directed his wishes towards the imperial dignity, and ultimately succeeded in its attainment, by poisoning Foedor and his son Demetrius, with whom terminated the dynasty of Ruric, the founder of the Russian monarchy, after it had existed 700 years.

On ascending the throne, Boris afforded another example, in addition to the numerous instances recorded in history, of a king who became beneficial to his subjects, though he had procured the sovereignty by unjustifiable means. But he did not long enjoy his power. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had escaped from his murderers;

derers; and, with the assistance of the Poles, and a considerable party (which every tyrant has against him), he drove out the usurper, and seized the crown himself. The imposture was discovered as soon as he came to the sovereignty, because the people were not pleased with him; and he was murdered. Three other false Demetriuses started up, one after another.

These impostures prove the despicable state of ignorance in which the Russians were immersed. The country became by turns a prey to the Poles and Swedes, but was at length delivered by the good sense of the boyars, impelled by their despair, so late as the year 1613. The independency of Russia was then on the point of being extinguished. Uladislaus, son of Sigismund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was such, that it produced a general rebellion of the Russians, who drove the Poles out of Moscow, where they had for some time defended themselves with unexampled courage. Philaretus, archbishop of Rostow, whose wife was descended from the ancient sovereigns of Russia, had been sent ambassador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Russian tyrants, and there detained prisoner, under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled against Uladislaus. The boyars met in a body; and such was their veneration for Philaretus, and his wife, whom the tyrant had shut up in a nunnery, that they elected their son Michael Feodorowitz, of the house of Romanoff, a youth of fifteen years of age, to be their sovereign. The father, being exchanged for some Polish prisoners, returned to Russia; and being created patriarch by his son, reigned in the right of Michael with great prudence and success. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladislaus upon the throne, and likewise the claim of a brother of Gustavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Russia occasioned a war between those two nations, which gave Michael a kind of breathing-time; and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects*. He reigned thirty-three years; and by his wisdom, and the mildness of his character, restored ease and tranquillity to his subjects.

Alexius succeeded his father Michael. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolensk, Kiow, and the Ukraine, but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand-seignor, Mahomet IV., haugh-

tily demanded some possessions from him in the Ukraine, his answer was, "that he scorned to submit to a Mahometan dog, and that his scymetar was as good as the grand-seignor's sabre." He promoted agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and sciences, of which he was himself a lover; published a code of laws, some of which are still used in the administration of justice; and greatly improved his army by establishing discipline. This he effected chiefly by the aid of foreigners, most of whom were Scotch. He subdued a chief of the Don Cossacs, named Stenka Rasin, who endeavoured to make himself king of Astracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and silk manufactures into his dominions; and, instead of putting to death or enslaving his Lithuanian, Polish, and Tartar prisoners, he sent them to people the banks of the Volga and the Kama. Theodore succeeded his father Alexius in 1667. He reigned seven years; and having, on his death-bed, called his boyars around him, in the presence of his brother and sister, Ivan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards so celebrated, and who was his half-brother, declared his will that Peter should be his successor, alleging that the bodily infirmities of Ivan must necessarily impair his mental faculties, and render him incapable of ruling an empire like that of Russia. But this wise destination extremely offended the princess Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means to excite a violent sedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the standing army of Russia. Their excesses surpassed all description; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Ivan in his birth-right, and exercised the government herself with the greatest severity and inhumanity; for all the Russian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom she supposed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The instances given of her barbarous administration are shocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Ivan and Peter, were declared joint sovereigns, and their sister their associate co-regent. Her administration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durst she venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other insurgents. Finding this debility in her own person, she intended to have married prince Basil Galitzin,

* Soon after the election of Michael, James I. of England sent, at his invitation, Sir John Meyrick, as his ambassador to Russia, upon some commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain sum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predecessors. The English court, however, was so ignorant of the affairs of that country, though a Russian company had been established at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of great duke, or lord of Russia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which shews him to have been not only well acquainted with the interests of his own subjects, but with the laws and usages of nations.

who is said to have been a man of sense and spirit, and some learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter, who was now about 17 years of age, asserted his right to the throne. Sophia and Ivan were then at Moscow; and upon Peter's publishing aloud that a conspiracy had been formed by his sister to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or destroyed Sophia's party, and forced her to retire to a monastery. Galitzin's life was spared; but his great estate was confiscated, and the following curious sentence was pronounced as his punishment: "Thou art commanded by the most clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majesty, out of his extreme goodness, allows thee three-pence per day for thy subsistence." This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and easy Ivan; and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future security by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

The first act of Peter, after becoming sole monarch, was to introduce a reform among the troops, who were then little better organized than the Janissaries of Turkey; and in this attempt he met with great success. In 1696 he took Asoph, and placed it in a state of defence against the Tartars. He next turned his attention to the finances, and corrected many gross abuses. He then resolved to carry into execution the design which had been formed by his father, of constructing a navy. For this purpose he first went to Archangel, where he employed himself in examining the operations of the shipwrights, and occasionally taking a part in their labours. But, as he learned that naval architecture was better understood in Holland and some other countries, in the following year he undertook a journey thither for the purpose of acquiring a more general knowledge of nautical affairs. After passing through Germany, he visited Amsterdam, where he entered himself into the company of shipwrights in the dock-yards, and worked with great diligence, under the name of *Master Peter*. In 1698 he visited England, and paid great attention to manufacture and every public institution. He afterwards visited Vienna, and intended to have made the tour of Italy; but the news of an insurrection in Russia obliged him to hasten home, where he compelled his sister Sophia, the cause of the revolt, to take the veil. Several of the insurgents were executed; and the remainder of the Strelitzes, or imperial guard, whom she had corrupted, were decimated, or sent to Siberia. In 1700 war was de-

clared between Sweden and Russia. The famous Charles XII. the reigning monarch of Sweden, having heard that Peter had laid siege to Narva, (which, together with Livonia, Esthonia, and the other provinces in the Baltic, for a considerable time, had belonged to Sweden,) immediately, though in the middle of winter, crossed the Baltic, with 20,000 of his choicest troops, suddenly attacked Peter, and completely defeated him, though his army amounted to upwards of 100,000 men. To any other than a mind like Peter's, this would have been a most afflicting circumstance; but he only observed to some of his generals, after the battle, "I knew that the Swedes would beat us at first; but in time they will teach us to beat them."

This, in the end, was verified; for the battles he lost rendered him at length a conqueror, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendship he shewed to Augustus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank distinct from merit; and he at last married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier, because, after a long co-habitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans and to assist his councils. Catharine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a common soldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which succeeded one another after the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, with Charles XII., were not the chief glory of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences; and made such acquisitions of dominion, that he may be said at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the most powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his subjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who in Russia is called *czarowitz*, and who, marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alleged, into some dangerous practices against his person and government; for which he was tried, and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter was, it is difficult to determine on the justice of the charge. It was undoubtedly his will that the young prince should be found guilty; and the very reading of the sentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is said, that as soon as sentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, in which were the following words, "The divine, ecclesiastical, civil, and military law, condemns to death, without mercy, all those whose attempts against

against their father and their sovereign are manifest," he fell into the most violent convulsions, from which it was with great difficulty that he regained a little interval of sense, during which he desired his father would come to see him; when he asked his pardon, and soon after died. According to other accounts, he was secretly executed in prison, and marshal Weyde was the person who beheaded him. After this event, in 1724, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be acknowledged as his successor; which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne upon the decease of her husband. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II., a minor, son to the czarowitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none more remarkable than the disgrace, and exile of Prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. Peter II. died of the small-pox, in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II., ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished; and the duke of Holstein, son to the eldest daughter, was, by the destination of the late empress, entitled to the crown; but the Russians, for political reasons, filled their throne with Anne, duchess of Courland, second daughter to Ivan, Peter's eldest brother, though her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburgh, was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted the throne under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, and asserted the prerogative of her ancestors. Upon her death, in 1740, John, the son of her niece, the princess of Mecklenburg, by Anthony Ulric of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle, was, by her will, entitled to the succession; but, being no more than two years old, Biron, who had been her favourite, and raised by her to the duchy of Courland, was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princess of Mecklenburg and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburg to arrest Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was sent into exile to Siberia.

The administration of the princess Anne of Mecklenburg and her husband, was, on many accounts, but particularly that of her German connexions, disagreeable, not only to the Russians,

but to other powers of Europe: and, notwithstanding a prosperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princess Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter the Great, formed such a party, that in one night's time she was declared and proclaimed empress of the Russias; and the princess of Mecklenburg, her husband, and son, were made prisoners.

The reign of Elizabeth may be said to have been more glorious than that of any of her predecessors, her father excepted. She abolished capital punishments, and introduced into all civil and military proceedings, a moderation unknown in Russia till her time: but, at the same time, she punished counts Munich and Osterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late administration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden, and settled, as we have already seen, the succession to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the most equitable foundation. Having gloriously finished a war with Sweden, she restored the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who was descended from her eldest sister, her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Russia; and, soon after her accession to the throne, called him to her court, where he renounced the succession of the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly was his right, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, the late empress Catharine II. by whom he had a son, the late emperor of Russia, Paul I.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth; she was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expence of a large subsidy; but many political, and some private reasons, it is said, determined her to take part with the house of Austria against the king of Prussia, in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the fortune of the war, which was in disfavour of Prussia, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities, both in the field and cabinet. Her success was such as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was, perhaps, saved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III. grand-duke of Holstein, a prince whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of his Prussian majesty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seems to have adopted as the rule of his future reign. He might have surmounted the effects even of those peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Russia; but, it is said, that he aimed

aimed at reformation in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is also alleged that he had formed a resolution to destroy both the empress and her son, though they had been declared heirs to the imperial throne by the same authority which had placed the crown upon his head; even the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge that he had resolved to shut up his wife and son in a convent, to place his mistress upon the throne, and to change the order of succession. The execution of his designs was, however, prevented by an almost general conspiracy formed against him, in which the empress took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince scarcely knew an interval between the loss of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762. His wife, the late Catharine II. was proclaimed empress.

Between the prisons and the graves of princes the distance is commonly of short duration: on the 17th of July, Alexius Orlof, the empress's favourite, with some other conspirators, assassinated Peter by strangling him; but, that this was without the knowledge of Catharine, is, at least, to be supposed, though she did not punish the perpetrators. It was proclaimed to the nation that he died suddenly of the colic. Catharine behaved with great magnanimity towards her husband's friends, and pardoned her rival, the countess Woronzof, whom the weak Peter, by the divorce of Catharine, was to have raised to the imperial dignity. The regulations adopted at the beginning of this reign, were in the manner and spirit of Peter the Great. She affected to rule by clemency, and to win the hearts of her subjects by acts of liberality: she also avoided foreign war, till she had settled the internal government of the empire. Fond of literature and the arts, she gave unbounded encouragement to the introduction of them into her dominions, and held correspondence with the most learned characters in Europe: but were we to offer a detailed account of the principal transactions which took place during the long reign of this princess, we should far exceed the limits within which this account must be confined.

The year 1764 was marked by the death of prince Ivan, grand-nephew to Peter the Great, who was assassinated, as some have supposed, (though without sufficient authority,) by the order of the empress. He had been a prisoner eighteen years, and is said to have laboured under great mental debility. In 1768 the empress composed instructions for a new code of laws; and the same year she submitted to the danger

of inoculation, in order that her subjects, to whom the practice was unknown, might be benefited by her example.

In 1769 war was declared between the Russians and the Turks, which continued for upwards of seven years, after a series of victories and conquests gained by the Russians. In this war our countryman Greig, then an admiral in the Russian service, highly distinguished himself by his conduct in a naval engagement with the Turks, in the Grecian archipelago; and it was during one of the campaigns of this contest that the noted Suwarrow first attracted public attention, where it is said that after a general engagement, in which he killed several janissaries with his own hands, he afterwards collected all their heads, and putting them into a sack, placed them at the feet of his general, count Romanzoff, who, for this *meritorious* act, ordered that he should be promoted.

The result of this war was the secession of the Crimea, and all the vast tract of country between the rivers Bog and the Dnieper, and their annexation to this empire, together with Kuban and the Isle of Taman, and the free navigation of all the Turkish seas, including the passage of the Dardanelles.

Peace being restored, the empress devoted her attention to public improvements, and political engagements. In 1779, as has already been stated, she divided the empire into governments; and, in 1781, established public schools throughout the country. In 1784 Georgia was annexed to the empire. In 1786 she repaired, at the public expence, all the great roads throughout the country, and ordered that they should be kept in good condition by the inhabitants of each district. In 1787 she travelled, with great pomp, through the southern provinces of the empire, attended by a most magnificent retinue; and, at Cherson, had an interview with the German emperor, Joseph. Immediately after this, war broke out between Russia and the Porte, in which the former was assisted by Germany, and the latter by Sweden. This war was carried on with great fury. Suwarrow, who was now appointed to the command of the Russian armies, defeated the Turks near Ockzakow; after which he took that place by storm, when a most dreadful carnage ensued. In 1789 Suwarrow attacked the Turks with a very inferior force, and defeated them near the river Rimnisto. In the following year he stormed Ismael, wherein perished upwards of 30,000 men, who refused to take quarter; 3000 afterwards died of their wounds, and upwards of 8000 more surrendered at discretion. The war was still continued with great animosity, but greatly to the disadvantage of the Turks, who,

who, in the month of August, 1791, were compelled to sign a treaty of peace, by which the Dniester was made the boundary between the two empires.

On the part of Sweden, during this war, still less was effected; and, after suffering many defeats both by sea and land, Gustavus found himself obliged to purchase peace by the loss of the province of Viborg.

Early in 1792, the Russian minister at Warsaw declared war against Poland, and that for the following reasons. In 1788 the diet of Poland had abrogated the constitution which the empress of Russia had, in 1775, compelled that nation to adopt. Three years afterwards, namely in 1791, the new constitution, which was intended farther to destroy the ambitious hopes of Catharine, was decreed in Warsaw. These were affronts which the empress could not forgive; and in one of the *conciliabula*, in which the ministers of state, and the favourite for the time being, sat to regulate the affairs of the north of Europe, it was determined that the Polish monarchy should be annihilated. The declaration of war above-mentioned was pronounced in the assembly of the diet, where it was received with a majestic calmness. They unanimously came to a determination to defend their country; and an army was hastily collected. But the measures of the empress were too deeply planned to be effectually resisted. A body of 80,000 men extended along the Bog, 10,000 more were at Kiow, and 30,000 had penetrated into Lithuania. A treaty was entered into between the courts of Vienna, Berlin, and Petersburg, by which each agreed to appropriate to itself a portion of the dismembered country. Stanislaus Augustus, the powerless head of the Polish government, was prevailed upon to make a public declaration that there was a necessity for yielding to the Russian arms. On the 9th of April, 1793, the Russian minister issued a manifesto, in which he declared that it was his mistress's intention to incorporate the whole of Lithuania with her other domains. In the mean time, the Russian soldiers, who had been dispersed throughout the provinces, committed such ravages and depredations as history furnishes but few examples of. Warsaw especially became the scene of their excesses. The general who commanded in that city connived at the disorders of the soldiery, and made the inhabitants feel the whole weight of his barbarity. Goaded by so many calamities, the Poles almost unanimously took the resolution to free their country from its invaders, or perish in the attempt. Accordingly they sent an invitation to Kosciusko, to come and lead them on against their oppressors. Under this brave patriot a

most vigorous and protracted resistance was made; the indignities offered to the country by the Russian ambassador were valiantly resented; and on the night of the 5th of September, the Prussian and Russian forces abandoned the siege of Warsaw, after a fruitless attack of two months. But on the 10th of October, a dreadful defeat was suffered by the troops under Kosciusko, who was wounded and made prisoner; and on the 4th and 5th of November, Warsaw was taken by storm, amidst the most barbarous and unrelenting slaughter. Kosciusko was sent a prisoner to St. Petersburg, whither he was soon followed by the king, who died there on the 11th of February, 1798, in the 66th year of his age; but, during his life, he had always been provided by the empress with a palace and adequate establishment.

Such were the circumstances which attended the erasure of the state of Poland from the map of Europe. Its provinces were divided among the partitioning powers. Austria obtained Little Poland, Red Russia, and a part of Podolia; Prussia acquired Great Poland (now called South Prussia), Polish Prussia, a small part of Lithuania, Massovia, and Polachia; and Samogitia, the remainder of Lithuania, Polesia, Volhinia, and Podolia, fell to the share of Russia.

By her intrigues, Catharine in like manner annexed to the crown of Russia the fertile and populous country of Courland. She invited the duke of Courland to her court under the pretext that she wished to confer with him on some affairs of importance; and during his absence the states of Courland assembled, and the nobles proposed to renounce the sovereignty of Poland, and annex the country to the empire of Russia. The principal members of the great council opposed this change; but the Russian general Pahlen appeared in the assembly, and his presence silenced all objections. The next day (March 18, 1795) an act was drawn up, by which Courland, Semigallia, and the circle of Pilten, were surrendered to the empress of Russia. The act was sent to Petersburg, and the submission of the states accepted by the empress. The duke of Courland was in no condition to refuse his acquiescence; he received very considerable presents from the empress, in compensation, and retired to live on some extensive estates he had purchased in Prussia.

During these transactions at home, Catharine was not inattentive to European politics. When the coalition of sovereign powers was formed against France, Gustavus III., the late king of Sweden, was to have conducted that expedition which was afterwards made against France by the king of Prussia and the prince of Brunswick. Catharine,

Catharine, on this occasion, promised to assist him and the alliance with twelve thousand Russian troops, and an annual subsidy of three hundred thousand rubles. She assured the pope that she would support him in the resumption of Avignon, and published a strong manifesto against the French revolution, and the progress of the new principles of liberty; but the only active part she took against that revolution was sending twelve ships of the line and eight frigates to join the English fleet, which were paid for by a subsidy, victualled and repaired in the British ports, and then returned home without rendering any effectual service.

Incessantly anxious to extend her dominions, Catharine turned her arms against Persia, under pretext of defending Lolf Ali Khan, a descendant of the race of the Sophis, but in reality to seize on the Persian provinces which border on the Caspian Sea. Her general, Valerian Soubow, penetrated, at the head of a numerous army, into the province of Daghestan, and laid siege to Derbent. Having carried a high tower, which defended the place, he put all the garrison to the sword, and prepared to storm the city. The Persians, terrified at the barbarous fury of the Russians, demanded quarter; and the keys of the city were delivered up to Soubow, by the commandant, a venerable old man, a hundred and twenty years of age, who had before surrendered Derbent to Peter I. at the beginning of the last century. Aga Mahmed was advancing to the relief of Derbent, when he learned that the place was already in the power of the Russians. Soubow drew out his army, and gave him battle; but victory declared in favour of the Persians, who forced the Russians to retire into Derbent; in consequence of which defeat a strong body of Russian troops were ordered to reinforce the army of Soubow.

These martial preparations, and plans of ambition, were, however, interrupted by her death. On the morning of the 9th of November, 1796, she appeared very cheerful, and took her coffee as usual. Soon after she retired into the closet, where continuing unusually long, her attendants became alarmed, and at length opened the door, when they found her on the floor in a state of insensibility, with her feet against the door. Dr. Rogerson, her first physician, was immediately called, who bled her twice. At first she appeared rather to revive, but was unable to utter a word, and expired at ten o'clock at night.

Catharine II. in her youth had been handsome, and preserved in the close of life a graceful and majestic air. She was of a middle stature, well proportioned, and, as she carried her head very erect, appeared taller than she really was. Her forehead was open, her nose aquiline, her mouth well made, and her chin somewhat long, though not so as to have a disagreeable effect. Her countenance did not want for expression; but she was too well practised in the courtly habits of dissimulation to suffer it to express what she wished to conceal.

She was succeeded by her son, Paul I., who, in the beginning of his reign, appeared to display a milder and more pacific disposition than that of his mother. Immediately upon his accession he ordered hostilities to cease between Russia and Persia; and a peace was soon after concluded between the two countries. He released the unfortunate Kosciusko, the general of the Polish patriots, with liberty to reside in his dominions, or retire to America, which latter country the general chose for his asylum, though he afterwards returned to Europe. He behaved with an honourable liberality towards the deposed king of Poland; and restored to their estates a great number of Polish emigrants and fugitives.

In the year 1799 he took a very active part in the war against France, and sent a powerful army under the command of the celebrated general Suwarrow, which, co-operating with the Austrians, drove the French almost entirely out of Italy, entered Switzerland, and threatened the interior of the republic. He, at the same time, sent a considerable force to act with the English army which had invaded Holland. But, suddenly, with a capriciousness which from this time appeared to attend all his actions, he recalled his army from Switzerland, and appeared to have become more hostile to England than he had been to France. He seized all the British ships in his ports, detaining upwards of 200 trading vessels in the harbour of Riga alone, and sending their crews up the country. From whatever cause proceeded his animosity against England—whether from perceiving, as has been supposed, that it was not the intention of the British ministry to give him possession of Malta, of which he was eagerly desirous, or whether it was a consequence of his natural extravagance and caprice, which in many instances bordered on phrensy*—he entered into an alliance with France, and excited a formidable confederacy of

* Particularly in the case of the extraordinary challenge, which he inserted in the Petersburg gazette, proposing to the sovereigns of Europe to end the wars in which they had so long been engaged, by meeting him, with their respective ministers, and engaging in single combat with himself and his minister. This challenge, it has since appeared, was written under his directions by the celebrated Kotzebue.

the maritime powers of the north against the naval interests of Great Britain, which was broken by the glorious battle of Copenhagen. His frantic acts appear to have given great offence to many of the principal nobles. But on the 23d of March, 1800, he expired *suddenly in the night*, of an *apoplexy*. Respecting the cause and manner of his death a cautious silence has been maintained in Russia; and it might not be proper to repeat the reports concerning it circulated in this country.

The day succeeding his decease, his eldest son, Alexander, was proclaimed emperor of all the Russias; and the new emperor soon afterwards visited the senate, and issued several popular ukases; one in particular, reviving and confirming all the regulations of the empress Catharine for the encouragement of industry and commerce.

Alexander was in his 24th year when he ascended the throne, and from his amiable disposition had acquired the esteem of all ranks of persons. The first measures which he adopted gave universal satisfaction to all his subjects. By his public ukases he suppressed the inquisition, which had become the scourge of his country; he restored the senate to its former authority, which his father had abridged; set at liberty the state-prisoners, and recalled from Siberia several of the exiles: he even extended his clemency to the assassins of his father, upon condition of their not approaching the capital.

On his accession to the throne, Alexander seemed desirous of cultivating the friendship of the neighbouring states, and especially that of Great Britain. His late father, among other projects, had procured himself to be declared grand-master of Malta, and had laid claim to the sovereignty of that island. This claim, which had nearly produced a rupture between the courts of London and St. Petersburg, Alexander consented to abandon, though he expressed a wish to be elected grand-master of the order by the free suffrages of the knights. In the mean time, a confederacy had been formed by the northern powers of Europe, with a view to oppose the British claim to the sovereignty of the seas; but the spirited measures adopted by the British before Copenhagen, and with the cabinet of St. Petersburg, produced a good understanding between the two powers.

The definitive treaty of peace between the belligerent powers of Europe was signed at Amiens, on the 25th of March, 1802, by one material article of which the island of Malta was to be restored to the order of St. John of Jerusalem, under the protection and guarantee of France, England, Austria, Spain, Russia, and

Prussia. A short time after the conclusion of this treaty, disputes arose among the contracting powers relative to the sovereignty of this island, the result of which is well known, as they afforded a reason for renewing the bloody contest which has so long desolated the face of Europe.

During the short interval of peace enjoyed by Europe, the emperor Alexander made several prudent regulations in the internal administration of the empire, and fitted out, at his own expence, two vessels for a voyage of discovery round the world, under the command of Captain Krusenstern. The vessels were provided with every requisite for accomplishing the object of the voyage; and several men of eminence for science and literature (among whom was Churchman, the American astronomer) volunteered their services on this occasion. The vessels sailed in the latter end of 1803, and had arrived at Kamschatka in 1805. In their passage thither they had touched at the Marquesas Islands, where they found an Englishman and a Frenchman, who had been wrecked from an American vessel several years before, and had nearly forgot their native languages. The last accounts received from these vessels state their arrival at Japan, where they were about to leave a minister from the court of St. Petersburg.

The demon of discord, which had again actuated the minds of the European sovereigns, failed, for some time, to extend her baneful influence over the Russian empire; but it was scarcely possible that the emperor should long continue an impartial spectator of the renewed disputes between his more powerful neighbours. The encroachments of France, at length, aroused the indignation of Alexander, whose ambassador, by his master's orders, took leave of the French court, though without any demonstrations of immediate hostility. On the 11th of April, 1804, a treaty of concert was concluded between Great Britain and Russia, in which the two governments agreed to adopt the most efficacious means for forming a general league of the states of Europe, to be directed against the power of France. To these measures Austria acceded, and the utmost endeavours were made in order to induce Prussia to join the coalition, but without effect. At length, in the autumn of 1805, the signal of hostilities was given by the courts of Austria and Russia against France, by the recal of their envoys. The military operations that distinguished this short but sanguinary conflict, the rapid successes of the French, the capitulation of Vienna on the 12th of October, and the dreadful conflict of Austerlitz on the 27th of November, will be found under our history of FRANCE. The consequences of these disastrous events

events were, first, a cessation of hostilities, and, at length, a treaty of alliance between Russia and France. The terms of this treaty were signed at Paris, by the Russian minister, the Count D'Oubril, who instantly set out for St. Petersburg, to procure the ratification of his master; but they appeared so derogatory to the interests of the empire, that the emperor refused them his sanction, resolving, before he stooped to the imperial eagles of Napoleon, to make one more effort to preserve his independence.

In this resolution he was confirmed by the king of Prussia, who now, when it was too late, began to see the folly and imprudence of the neutrality which he had so long maintained; and these two potentates agreed, in 1806, in conjunction with Sweden, to make a common cause against the disturber of Europe, whose united forces, it was expected, would have hurled the tyrant from his throne. These expectations, however, were miserably disappointed. The same extraordinary success still attended the arms of France; and the north of Europe was condemned to submit in silence to her yoke.

On the 13th of October, 1806, the Prussians received a dreadful overthrow at Jena, where, according to the French, their loss amounted to upwards of 20,000 men in killed and wounded, and 30,000 prisoners. The Russian troops were not engaged till December, when, on the 28th, a dreadful conflict took place, about sixty miles from Warsaw; and the fighting continued for three days: the loss was immense on both sides, but the battle appears to have terminated in favour of the French.

In the beginning of February, 1807, the Russians obtained a partial advantage in the battle of Eylau, during four successive days. The Russian general, Benningsen, had to withstand several vigorous attacks. On the 7th, at three o'clock in the morning, the battle became general through the whole line of the main army: the contest was destructive, and night came on before it could be decided. Early in the following morning the French renewed the attack, and the action was contended with obstinacy on both sides; but towards the evening the assailants were repulsed, and the Russian general remained master of the field. In this action Napoleon commanded in person, having under him Murat, Augereau, &c. The loss of the Russians was upwards of 6000 men, while they estimated that of the French at double that number.

This was the last important stand made by the Russian army. Several actions ensued at Spanden, Lamitten, &c. in all of which the French had the advantage, till, at length, on the 14th of June, the Russians appeared in considerable

force on the bridge of Friedland, whither the enemy, under Napoleon, was advancing. After various manœuvres, the Russian troops received a check, and filed off towards Königsberg. In the afternoon the French army drew up in order of battle, having Marshal Ney on the right, Lasnes in the centre, and Mortier on the left, while Victor commanded a *corps de reserve*. The Russians were commanded by Alexander in person, who had under him General Benningsen, and two other general officers. At half past five o'clock the attack began under Marshal Ney; who, notwithstanding all the efforts of the Russian commanders, carried all before him. The contest was horrible beyond description; but on the part of the Russians the utmost heroism was unavailing: though both armies were nearly equal in numbers, yet the velocity of the French movements, and their superior military tactics, gave them a vast superiority, and the Russians were totally and completely defeated. According to the exaggerations of the French bulletins, the Russians are said to have lost from 10,000 to 15,000 men in killed and wounded, while their own loss was very inconsiderable. In consequence of this victory the French became masters of the country around Königsberg; and Marshal Soult entered that city in triumph. Thus concluded the campaign and warfare in which the Russians lost upwards of 30,000 of their best troops.

While these events were going on in the north of Europe, the emissaries of France were not wanting in their endeavours at Constantinople to induce the Porte to declare war against their ancient enemies. They at length succeeded; but the disturbances which broke out in Turkey about this period prevented any action of consequence taking place.

The defeats which the allied armies had sustained in Poland rendered peace, almost on any terms, desirable. On the 28th of June an amicable meeting took place between the French and Russian emperors, in a boat upon the river Niemen; and adjoining apartments were fitted up for their two courts in the town of Tilsit. This constrained friendship was soon after cemented by the treaty of Tilsit, between the two emperors and the king of Prussia, on the 7th of July.

The conclusion of the treaty of Tilsit was notified to the court of London by the Russian minister; and at the same time a proposal was made by his imperial majesty for mediating a peace between France and England. This mediation, however, was declined on the part of Great Britain, until his Britannic majesty should be made acquainted with the stipulations of the treaty above-mentioned, and should find them
such

such as might afford him a just hope of the attainment of a secure and honourable peace. This, no doubt, was expected by the court of St. Petersburg; but it served as a pretext for binding more closely the alliance between that power and France, by breaking off her connexion with Great Britain. Accordingly, in October, Lord Leveson Gower, the British envoy at the court of Russia, received a note from the government, intimating, that, as a British minister, he could no longer be received at the court of St. Petersburg; which he therefore soon after quitted. An embargo was laid on all English vessels in the Russian ports; and it was peremptorily required by Alexander and Napoleon, that Sweden should join the coalition against Great Britain, which the brave Swedish monarch disdainfully rejected. This produced a war between Sweden and Russia, of which we have already presented an account, in our description of SWEDEN.

An additional ground of complaint was furnished against Great Britain by the attack upon Copenhagen, and the seizure of the Danish fleet in September; and though Lord Gower attempted to justify this measure upon the plea of antici-

pating the French in the same transaction, Alexander, in the warmest terms, expressed his indignation at what he called an unjust attack upon a neutral power. Soon after this period a considerable Russian fleet joined that of France in the Mediterranean; but, being pursued by a British squadron, was obliged to seek refuge in the Tagus, where, by the convention of Cintra, they were surrendered to the English, to be held as a deposit till six months after the signing of a definitive treaty. Shortly after war was publicly declared against Great Britain at St. Petersburg.

In October, 1808, a meeting took place at Erfurth between Alexander and Napoleon, when a letter was drawn up under their signatures, and addressed to his Britannic majesty, requesting him to enter into a negotiation for a general peace: this his majesty, in answer, declared himself willing to do, in conjunction with his allies, whom he enumerated; but as this did not meet with the approbation of the two emperors, nothing farther was effected. From that period to the present, England and Russia have continued at war, though nothing particular has occurred worthy of observation by the historian.

RUSSIAN ISLANDS IN EUROPE.

THE islands belonging to this country are numerous but unimportant. We shall present our readers with a brief description of the most important of them, beginning at the north.

NOVA ZEMBLA.—This was a name given to the new-discovered tract in question, which, in the Russian language, signifies New Land. It is separated from the northern part of Russia by the strait called Veigatz, or Wygatz, which lies in north latitude 70 deg. The land that forms this strait is a promontory, advancing southward from the main country, which is supposed to extend itself much farther north. It was long doubted whether this country joined to the continent of Greenland on the west, or of Tartary to the east; but it is now known to be an extensive island.

Nova Zembla was first discovered by the English in the year 1553, when Captain Willoughby sailed thither with three vessels, and advanced from the north cape of Finmark as far north as the 72d degree of latitude, where he thought he had descried this land; but, being obliged, through stress of weather, to put into a port of Lapland, he there perished with cold, with all his company. Captain Burroughs sailed in search of it three years after, and having doubled the above-mentioned cape, discovered the strait of Wygatz, between the south part of Nova Zembla, and the north coast of Samoieda. Since

that time it has been often visited, both by the Dutch and English, in hopes of finding out the north-east passage; but the coldness of the climate, and the mountains of snow which cover the whole country, prevented them from making any great discoveries. Some Dutchmen wintered there, in 1596, but found the cold so excessive, that they with great difficulty kept themselves alive till the next summer. They saw not the sun from January 4 to June 24; during which long and dark interval they had no light but what the moon gave them, from the first to the light quarter, in which she shone by day as well as night.

The account they gave of it is, that some parts of that country are inhabited by a people of low stature, who are idolaters and barbarous. The attempts made afterwards by Barentz, a Hollander, by Hudson, Wood, and Flaws, proved likewise of little or no use to the public, and of destructive consequence to themselves. Wood, indeed, made some remarks, which gave him reason to suppose there was a passage betwixt this country and Greenland. Nova Zembla he represents as the most forlorn spot in all the world, the greatest part of which is laid under snow and ice; and that where there are neither of these, nothing presents itself to the view but dismal quagmires, covered with moss, and some blue

blue and yellow flowers. On digging two or three feet into the earth, they found the ice as hard as marble. In other northern countries the ice and snow are observed to melt much sooner on the sea-coasts than in the inland parts: but here it proves the reverse; and the sea, which beats against mountains of it of a prodigious height, has so undermined it, that it seems to hang in the air, and discovers such monstrous chasms as cannot be beheld without horror.

The country, as far as our author had an opportunity to view it, breeds some sort of wild creatures, such as large white bears, foxes, some small creatures like rabbits, larger than rats, large penguins, &c. The penguin is of the size of a goose, and the feathers are similar to hairs, and of an ash-colour. The wings are very short in proportion to the body, the bill is black, and the legs are of a bright green: they keep in the water all the day, where they feed upon fish. As they are unable to fly, they cannot shun their enemies, except by leaping along, which they do pretty well by the help of their short wings. However, this bird is active upon the water, and seems to be very skilful in catching its food. When the sun begins to set, they retire to the rocks near the sea, where they continue till morning, at which time they are easily taken. They build their nests upon the rocks, on the craggy points, to which these birds can get up very easily. Their eggs are very good; but the flesh has a disagreeable fishy taste, and is never eaten but in cases of great necessity.

The southern part of Nova Zembla has been since found to be inhabited by a squat swarthy sort of people, who clothe themselves with seal-skins, or with the skin of the penguin, with the feathers outward. They live upon game, or fish, worship the sun and moon, and have some little wooden idols in human shape, very badly carved.

SPITZBERGEN.—The remote and dreary isles of Spitzbergen having been taken possession of by the Russians, they may be here briefly described. This country has by some been styled New Greenland, a name which Pinkerton asserts belongs to the western side of Greenland Proper, while the eastern side is called Old Greenland. The main land of Spitzbergen extends about 300 miles, from the south cape in latitude 76 deg. 30 min., to Verlegan Hook in lat. 80 deg. 7 min. In an adjacent small isle are said to be basaltic columns, from 18 to 20 inches in diameter, and mostly hexagonal. Drift-wood is frequent in these northern latitudes, partly perhaps from the banks of the Ob, and partly from America, there being a strong current from the West Indies to the north-east. Spitzbergen is supposed to have been first discovered by the Dutch navigator Ba-

rentz, in 1596. The mountains are of granite and grit, the highest not exceeding 4000 feet; for mountains, in general, decline in height towards the poles. The glaciers in the north-east of Spitzbergen present a singular appearance, being high cliffs of an emerald colour, impending over the sea, with cataracts of melted snow, and a back ground of black conic hills streaked with white. The sea itself contains mountains of ice, formed by aggregation; a large field forcing a smaller out of the water, till it lodge upon the superior surface; and the height is afterwards increased by the snow, till it sometimes rises to 1500 feet. The snow in these high latitudes often falls as hard and minute as fine sand. About the 1st of November the sun sets, and appears no more till the beginning of February; and after the beginning of May it never sets till August. Coals are found in Spitzbergen, but are not worked for. The only quadrupeds, as in Greenland, are dogs. The rivers and coasts abound in fish, on which the scanty population chiefly subsist. The inland parts are totally uninhabited.

ALAND.—This island, for a considerable length of time, belonged to Sweden, but was annexed to Russia, together with Finland, in 1809. It is situated in the Baltic, between 40 and 50 miles from the south-west part of Finland. The circumference is near 180 miles. The inhabitants, who are about 6000 in number, live in small hamlets, as there is no regular town in the island; for, indeed, the peasants have almost remonstrated against founding any, which the Swedish government was desirous of effecting. The unfortunate King Eric XIV. was confined in a castle in this island, which goes under the name of Castleholm. This island abounds in cattle, and some wild beasts, and is plentifully supplied with fish. It is surrounded by many sand-banks, rocks, and small islands; some of the latter being inhabited, and others uninhabited.

HAGLAND, in the gulf of Finland, is about nine miles in length. The whole is but a cluster of rocks, interspersed or covered with fir-trees, brambles, &c. and haunted by a few hares, that grow white in the winter.

DAGO, situated on the coast of Revel, is of a triangular form, and about 20 miles in circumference. On the western cape there is a high tower, which was built by the senate of Revel for a light-house and land-mark.

OESSEL, divided from the last-mentioned by a narrow channel, is about 40 miles in circumference; and, like the former, abounds in rocks and precipices. Its marble is said to be the finest in the Russian empire.

The Russian islands in the Black Sea are insignificant and unimportant.

CHAP. VII.

PRUSSIA.

SECTION I.

*General and Preliminary Observations—Name—
Situation and Extent—Boundaries—Divisions—
Population—Chief Towns, &c. &c.*

THIS kingdom forms a more striking instance of the rapid progress of revolutions than any which history can furnish. Although it only commenced with the 18th century, it by gradual accession became so extensive, as deservedly to rank among the first powers of Europe, but has lately been nearly obliterated from the map of Europe, by the modern scourge of nations. The dominions of Prussia were small and scattered, till the acquisition of Silesia, and a third part of Poland, which gave a wide basis to the new monarchy.

Name.—The name of this country originates, according to some, from the *Pruzzi*, a Slavonic tribe; but more probably, according to others, from the name of *Russia*, and the Slavonic word *Po*, which signifies near or adjacent. Thus the Polabæ were so called, because they were situated upon the Elbe, which is called *Labe* in the Slavonic dialect.

Situation and Extent.—The Prussian territories extend from the 51st to the 55th degree of north latitude, and from the 16th to the 24th of east longitude. Exclusive of small detached territories, before the late rupture with France, it extended from Hornburg and the river Oker, in the country of Halberstadt, the farthest western connected district, to the river Memel, a distance of 600 miles. The breadth, from the southern limit of Silesia to Dantzic, exceeded 300 miles. By the treaty of Tilsit, however, these dimensions have been greatly narrowed, particularly in the width of the kingdom; in the bosom of which, between Prussia Proper and Silesia, is now comprehended the duchy of Warsaw.

Boundaries.—This kingdom is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea and Russia (*Samogitia*): on the east by Russia (*Lithuania*); on the south by Galicia; and on the west by the kingdoms of Westphalia and Saxony.

Divisions.—From the foundation of this monarchy in 1701, its extent was gradually enlarged by conquest and intrigue, till it became at length a most formidable power. The following table will present the reader with an outline of the whole of the kingdom in 1805, previous to the invasion of the French.

	Sq. miles.	Populat.
East Prussia, or the ancient Ducal Prussia	12,050	940,000
West Prussia, with the district of Netze	10,100	521,030
South Prussia	15,000	1,100,000
New East Prussia	11,000	700,000
Prussian Pomerania	7,200	540,000
Electorate of Brandenburg	10,672	1,200,000
Part of the counties of Mannsfeld and Hohenstein	180	35,000
Abbey of Quedlinburg	32	12,000
Town and territory of Erfurt, and the Eichfeld	810	110,000
Duchy of Magdeburg	1,152	290,000
Principality of Halberstadt	480	100,000
Principality, late bishopric, of Hildesheim	640	90,000
Late imperial cities of Muhlhausen, Nordhausen, Goslar	60	31,000
Principality of East Friesland	864	120,000
Principality of Minden	496	60,000
Part of duchy of Cleve	400	55,000
County of Mark	816	124,000
Counties of Lingen and Tecklenburg	208	45,000
County of Ravensberg	272	85,000
Principality, late bishopric, of Paderborn	868	120,000
Principality of Munster, containing the city and greater part of the late bishopric	1,360	200,000
Towns and territory late belonging to the abbeys of		
Herforden	32	2,000
Essen	40	5,500
Werden	40	5,000
Elten	32	4,000
Principality of Bayreuth or Culmbach	1,200	220,000
Principality of Anspach, or Onolzbach	1,120	275,000
Prussian Silesia and the county of Glatz	11,616	1,890,000
Switzerland.—Principality of Neuchâtel, or Neuenburg, and the county of Valengin	240	45,000
Total	88,980	9,015,130

By

By the unfortunate termination of the war between this country and France, which was succeeded by the treaty of Tilsit, in 1807, this kingdom was not only deprived of its political consequence among the European nations, but was reduced, in point of extent of territory, to nearly its limits in 1772. The following, as far as we can accurately ascertain, are its present divisions, extent, and population:

	Sq. miles.	Populat.
Ducal Prussia	12,050	940,000
West Prussia, with part of Netz	10,000	500,000
Pomerania	7,200	540,000
Brandenburg	10,672	1,200,000
Part of the duchy of Magdeburg	1,000	280,000
Silesia, including part of Glatz	11,500	1,800,000
Total	52,422	5,260,000

By comparing the two preceding tables, it will be perceived that Prussia, to exist at all, was obliged to sacrifice nearly one-half of her most valuable provinces. Of the remainder we shall proceed to give our readers a description in our usual way.

EAST, OR DUCAL PRUSSIA.

This division of the kingdom is bounded on the north by the Baltic and part of Russia; on the east and south by the duchy of Warsaw; and on the west by Western Prussia. This country was for a length of time under the government of the knights of the Teutonic order; but was freed from their yoke, and erected into an independent dukedom in 1525. The chief places are,

1. *Koningsberg* or, *Konningsburg*, the capital of Prussia properly so called, is situated on the navigable river Pregel, which falls, a little below, into the Frische Haff, an inlet of the Baltic. This city was founded in the 13th century, and is well fortified. The houses are tolerably neat and well built, and the streets spacious. The town-house, the exchange, and the cathedral, are fine structures; besides which, there are eighteen other churches, fourteen of which are Lutheran, three Calvinistic, and one Romish. Here is also a magnificent castle or palace, in which is a hall 274 feet long, and 59 broad, without pillars to support it, and a handsome library. The tower is very high, from the top of which there is a most extensive prospect. The number of houses in this city have been estimated at 4000, which are included in a circumference of about seven English miles, in which (including the garrison of 7000 men) are nearly 60,000 inhabitants. The commerce of Koningsberg is very considerable; but ships of large burden cannot come up to the town, and are obliged

to be unloaded at Pillaw, a small town on the Baltic, which is reckoned the port of this city, from whence the merchandise is sent up to Koningsberg in smaller vessels. Here is a good university, at which there were upwards of 300 students in 1802. Koningsberg is 125 miles north of Warsaw, and 940 east of London.

2. *Memel*, a large sea-port, situated on one of the finest harbours in the Baltic, in the small part of Prussian Lithuania which still remains to this country. This city is very extensive, but irregularly built, with many narrow and dirty streets: several of the houses are built of timber, while others, of modern erection, are of brick or stone. The principal commerce of this place is timber, which is allowed to be the finest and largest in the universe, an almost incredible quantity of which is annually exported. Memel is situated at the northern extremity of the Carische Haff, 77 miles N.N.E. of Koningsberg. The number of inhabitants are estimated at 15,000.

3. *Tilsit*, a large, rich, and commercial city, situated on the river Niemen, 50 miles north-east of Koningsberg. It consists chiefly of 2 long streets, of a proportionable breadth, and a contiguous suburb, called the liberty. This city is famous for being the place where the emperors of France and Russia had an interview in 1807, and where they concluded the treaty of peace which bears the title of the Treaty of Tilsit. The flat country around this city is one of the most fertile in the kingdom. Tilsit contains about 600 houses, and 7000 inhabitants.

WESTERN, OR ROYAL PRUSSIA,

This division of the Prussian monarchy is chiefly comprised of the first acquisitions from Poland in 1772, and for a length of time was known by the name of Polish Prussia; but afterwards was termed as above, in order to distinguish it from the more recent acquisitions. It is about 108 miles long, and 104 in breadth. As a general statement of the climate, soil, &c. will be presented in our next section, it will be unnecessary in this place to enter into a description of these particulars. The chief places are,

1. *Dantzic*, or *Dantzick*, a large, rich, and commercial city, which was known as a place of great trade as early as the tenth century. At one time it was considered as the chief city of the Hanseatic league; and was greatly enlarged and improved by the knights of the Teutonic order. After the dissolution of that order, it became a republic, under the protection of Poland; under which form of government it continued till 1794, when it was annexed to and formed a part

part of Prussia. Under this power it was not long destined to continue; for by the sixth article of the treaty of Tilsit it was restored to its former independence*. The houses of this city are, in general, six or seven stories in height; and the granaries (in which amazing quantities of all kinds both of inland and foreign produce are deposited), are still higher. The situation of this city for commerce is excellent, upon the western bank of the Vistula, near four miles from the Baltic. The harbour is deep and commodious, ships of considerable burden loading and unloading close to the quays. These and other advantages rendered this city the most flourishing in the Baltic, and it was the general rendezvous for ships of all nations from the thirteenth to the beginning of the eighteenth century; since which period, though not gone to decay, yet it has not increased in the same proportion, from the rapid enlargement of other commercial towns on the same coast. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 40,000. It stands 68 miles W. S. W. of Königsberg.

2. *Elbing*, a populous sea-port, situated on the southern coast of the Frische Haff, on a small river of the same name. The houses are tolerably well built upon the modern plan, and the streets are in general spacious. The trade of this place is very considerable, and, previous to the adoption of the measures imposed upon the powers of the continent by France, for excluding the English from all their ports, was fast on the increase. It lies 30 miles south-east of Dantzic, and is said to contain about 14,000 inhabitants.

3. *Thorn*, a considerable city (formerly Hanseatic), situated on the Vistula, 70 miles south-east of Dantzic. It is strongly fortified, and carries on a considerable trade; but, from the river becoming wider, and consequently shallower, with other misfortunes, it has declined from its flourishing condition. Its soap and gingerbread are, however, still in great repute throughout the whole country. Its population is estimated at 10,000.

POMERANIA,

Situated to the west of Royal Prussia, is about 200 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the Baltic; on the west by the river Pene, which separates it from Swedish Pomerania; and on the south by Brandenburg. It is divided by the river Oder into the Hither and Further Pomerania, and is in general a flat country, abounding in lakes, woods, and forests. The chief towns are,

1. *Stettin*, the capital, a handsome and well-fortified sea-port town, situated upon the river Oder, which divides it into four parts. The houses are well-built, and the streets spacious, being intersected with canals. Here are several good public edifices: a court of admiralty, a chamber of commerce, an exchange, custom-house, &c. It has had, for a length of time, a famous school, which the wars of Germany never disturbed, and which is still in high estimation. The manufactures of Stettin are very considerable, and it carries on a good trade with nearly all the maritime powers of Europe in time of peace. The number of houses is estimated at 1400, and the inhabitants, including the garrison, at 15,000,

2. *Cammin*, a considerable town, situated on a branch of the Oder, where it forms what is called the lake of Boden, 35 miles north of Stettin. It is neatly built, and has a great trade. The inhabitants are about 7000.

3. *Colberg*, a sea-port town, at the mouth of the river Porsante, near its estuary into the Baltic. This place is noted for its salt-works, which are very extensive, and employ a number of hands. The town is irregularly built, but has a few good houses: its trade is considerable.

4. *Treptow*, a neat town upon the river Rega, which has been made navigable from the Baltic. This place is famous for an extensive manufacture of stockings and stuffs.

BRANDENBURG,

Situated to the south-west of the preceding, is bounded on the north by Pomerania; on the west by the kingdom of Westphalia; on the south by Saxony and Silesia; and on the east by Western Prussia. It is divided into five principal parts; viz. the Old March, or Mark, that of Prignitz, Middle Mark, Ucker Mark, and the New Mark. The chief towns are,

1. *Berlin*, the capital not only of Brandenburg, but also of the whole Prussian dominions. It is situated on the river Spree; and, besides the royal palace, has many superb edifices: it contains fourteen Lutheran and eleven Calvinist churches, besides a Catholic one. Its streets and squares are spacious, and built in a very regular manner; but the houses, though neat without, are ill-finished, and ill-furnished within, and very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of Prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-house is also a beautiful structure: and the arsenal, which is handsomely built, in the form of a

* "The City of Dantzic, with a territory of two leagues round the same, is restored to her former independence, under the protection of his majesty the king of Prussia, and his majesty the king of Saxony; to be governed according to the laws by which she was governed at the time when she ceased to be her own mistress." *Treaty of Tilsit, Article 6.*

square, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are sundry manufactories in Berlin, and several schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Buschin, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garrison. In the same year, according to the same author, there were no fewer than 443 silk-loom, 149 of half silks, 2858 for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. In 1791, the number of houses, according to Hoeck, were 6950, with 142,099 inhabitants. In 1803 the population amounted to 153,128, exclusive of the soldiers of the garrison, and their wives and children. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

The river Spree is here an inconsiderable stream, but it has been rendered navigable to the Oder by a canal cut along its banks to the east; and there is another canal from Berlin to the Elbe on the west; so that this city has a communication both with the Baltic Sea and German Ocean. Berlin is said to have suffered considerable dilapidation while in the possession of the French, in 1807.

2. *Potsdam*, a pleasant city situated upon an island about ten miles in circuit, which is formed by the rivers Spree and Havel, 15 miles southwest of Berlin. This city was almost wholly rebuilt by the late king of Prussia, for the owners of the different buildings, with new, regular, and commodious edifices. The palace of the Prussian monarchs is very curious and magnificent, and built upon a very beautiful spot. In this city is a very extensive foundry for arms, and some manufactures of silk, velvet, and other stuffs. The inhabitants are computed at 30,000.

3. *Francfort on the Oder*, so called from its situation upon that river, and in order to distinguish it from another town of the same name upon the river Maine. It was formerly a free imperial city, but at the beginning of the last century became subject to Prussia. It is chiefly remarkable for its three great annual fairs, and its university, in which were about 200 students in 1802. The houses in this town are mostly ancient and irregular; and the restrictions which the French emperor has put upon commerce, has tended, of late years, greatly to reduce the traffic of the place, which stands 48 miles south of Berlin, and has a population of about 16,000 souls.

4. *Brandenburg*, a thriving town situated upon the river Havel, which divides it into two parts, called the Old and New Towns, which are united by a good bridge. This place has considerably increased of late years, and has now a great

trade. The buildings are neat and commodious, and the inhabitants are little short of 10,000.

MAGDEBURG.

The duchy of Magdeburg, in its most extensive sense, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 in breadth, stretching on both sides of the river Elbe, the whole of which became subject to the king of Prussia in 1793, when it was said to contain 35 towns and 431 villages: but, by the treaty of Tilsit, all that part of the country situated on the left banks of the Elbe was sequestered, and this river became the western boundary of the kingdom. This country affords several mines of pit-coal; and the salt-springs are so productive as to supply all the interior of Germany with that commodity. The chief town is

Magdeburg, a large, well-built, and populous city upon the river Elbe, in the middle of which, upon an island, there is a strong fort. Among the public buildings of this place are the king's palace, formerly the residence of the bishops, a venerable fabric; the armoury; the governor's house; and the guildhall. The cathedral is an ancient fabric, in which there is a mausoleum of Otho the Great. This city has a very handsome square, ornamented with large, elegant, and modern houses, the area of which is well paved. Here are different manufactories of linen and cotton goods, stockings, hats, gloves, &c.; but the principal are those of woollen and silk. This city is very eligibly situated for trade, having an easy access to Hamburg by the Elbe, and lying in the central road between the north and south of Germany. Magdeburg dates its origin from the time of Charlemagne, in whose days it is said to have been a considerable place. It was taken by storm in 1631 by the imperial troops, who burnt the town, and massacred the inhabitants; so that out of 10,000 only 800 escaped, and many young women plunged into the river to escape violation. Its population was estimated by Krug, in 1802, at 32,000 souls.

SILESIA,

Or, as it is commonly called, the duchy of Silesia, was anciently possessed by the Suevi, a Teutonic nation. In the seventh century the Slavonians made themselves masters of the country. It was afterwards united with Poland, and acknowledged the Polish dukes and kings as its sovereigns. In the 14th century, the Silesian princes rendered themselves independent of Poland, and the whole of the duchy became subject to the kings of Bohemia, under whose government it continued till the death of the emperor Charles VI. in the year 1740; when Frederick

deric II., king of Prussia, laid claim to certain principalities of Silesia, and supported his claim so powerfully by his arms, that Lower and the greater part of Upper Silesia, with the county of Glatz, were ceded to him by the treaty of Breslau, and have ever since remained subject to Prussia.

Silesia is situate between 49 deg. 30 min. and 52 deg. 20 min. of north latitude, and 15 and 19 deg. of east longitude. It is bounded on the north by Brandenburg and Saxony; on the east by Galicia and the duchy of Warsaw; on the south by Hungary and Moravia; and on the west by Moravia, Bohemia, and Saxony. It is subject to Prussia, except a small part of Upper or Southern Silesia, which belongs to Austria. Since the division of Poland in 1795, a part of that country, in extent about 656 square miles, has been incorporated with it, and placed under the same government. The whole is about 274 miles in length, and 100 in breadth.

This country is divided into Lower and Upper Silesia. The former is again subdivided into the seven principalities of Breslau, Brieg, Schweidnitz, Jauer, Leignitz, Wohlau, and Glogau; and the latter, into the three principalities of Munsterberg, Oppeln, and Ratibor, besides the county of Glatz, and some intermediate principalities and inferior lordships.

Silesia is said to contain 180 cities and towns, and 4000 villages. The principal places are,

1. *Breslau*, situated at the confluence of the Oder and the small river Ohlau, which last runs through several of the streets. It is a large, well-built, fortified city, containing 3200 houses, and upwards of 60,000 inhabitants, one-third of whom are Catholics, and nine-tenths of the remainder Lutherans; yet the Protestants have only nine churches, while the Catholics have twenty-six, many of which are, however, cloisters. Breslau is the see of a Catholic bishop, whose jurisdiction extends over the whole of Silesia. The cathedral was founded about the year 1150, and contains several magnificent chapels, which have been added to the body of the church by different former bishops. The principal of the Protestant churches is the Lutheran church of St. Elizabeth. In the library belonging to this church is what may be considered as a curious manuscript: to the naked eye it appears to be a drawing with a pen of the Venus de Medicis, upon a half sheet of folio paper; but on examining it with a magnifying glass, it is found to be a copy of Ovid's Art of Love, perfectly legible, and the whole five books within a compass of ten inches in length and three in width. Breslau has several large squares; and the public buildings are very stately. The streets are straight and wide,

with lofty houses, for the most part of brick or stone. Here is a good university, which was founded in 1702 by the Emperor Leopold. This city has a great trade, being much frequented, during the annual fairs, by Hungarian, Bohemian, Polish, and other merchants. It lies 165 miles north of Vienna.

2. *Schweidnitz*, a large and handsomely built town, 22 miles S.W. of Breslau, which, since it became subject to Prussia, has been rendered a very strong place. The streets are spacious, the church elegant, and the houses well constructed. It has several extensive linen and woollen manufactures, and claims the intolerant and disgraceful privilege of admitting no Jews within its walls. The inhabitants are upwards of 6000 in number, about one-fourth of whom are Catholics.

3. *Brieg*, a large well-built town, nearly as populous as Schweidnitz. It is very advantageously seated on the Oder, 23 miles S.W. of Breslau, and has a great market for coarse linens.

4. *Glogau*, or *Great Glogau*, very advantageously situated for commerce upon the Oder, near the northern limits of the duchy, which renders it a great depôt for the manufactures and general produce of the country. The town is neatly built, and has several good houses, and spacious streets. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 6000.

5. *Leignitz*, an ancient and considerable town, situated on a small river which a little below this place falls into the Oder. The houses are indifferently built, and the streets are close and confined. This town carries on a respectable trade in cloth and madder; its population is estimated at about 5000 souls.

GLATZ.

Though we have included the extent of this county under the head of Silesia, in our tabular divisions of this monarchy, yet, being a distinct government, it requires in this place a separate consideration.

The county of Glatz is situate between Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, and is about 40 miles in length, and 25 in breadth. It is surrounded on all sides by mountains, which contain mines of coal, copper, and iron, and quarries of stone and marble. It has excellent pastures, which feed great numbers of cattle.

Glatz, the principal town, is a strongly fortified place, romantically situated on the side of a mountain, on the summit of which is a large and strong castle. The buildings of this place are respectable; and it is represented as containing within the walls about 400 houses, and as many

more in four suburbs. The number of inhabitants is about 8000, who carry on a considerable trade.

SECTION II.

Climate and Seasons—Soil and Face of the Country—Mountains—Rivers—Lakes, Canals, &c.—Forests—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Antiquities—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants—Language, &c.—Manufactures and Commerce—Revenue—Religion—Army—Orders of Knighthood—Laws and Government—History, &c. &c.

Climate and Seasons.—In the kingdom of Prussia properly so called, and Pomerania, the climate is damp and raw, and the cold more lasting, than in some other European countries under the same degrees of latitude. About four months in the year are temperate, warm, and pleasant; but the autumns are frequently wet, and the air in winter is cold, piercing, and severe. But in Brandenburg and Silesia the winters are shorter, the climate in general more temperate, and the seasons more regular and settled. Though the northern parts are damp and humid, they are far from being unwholesome, the inhabitants frequently attaining to a great age.

Soil, Face of the Country, &c.—The soil of Brandenburg is meagre, and even the space between Berlin and Potsdam resembles a wilderness; but that of Prussia is loamy and fertile. The northern extremity of Silesia has the same sandy soil as Brandenburg, yet this province is in general extremely productive, and abounds in fruits and culinary vegetables. Till of late years agricultural improvements were but little known, and Brandenburg chiefly produced scanty crops of rye; but Prussia Proper and the other provinces display every kind of grain and esculent plant that can flourish under such a latitude; and among the productions of Silesia must be classed maize, and even vines, but the wine is of inferior quality. In the duchy of Magdeburg the soil becomes a good loam, yielding excellent crops of wheat.

With respect to the general appearance of these extensive regions, Brandenburg, is a level, sandy, and barren country; but Prussia Proper abounds in woods, and evinces superior fertility. Silesia displays a pleasing diversity, being level and open towards Poland, but towards the south beautifully diversified with vales and mountains. Pomerania is, in general, a flat country, but it has some pleasing swells and gentle depressions. The duchy of Magdeburg has several extensive marshes; but the general appearance of the country is pleasing and various.

Mountains.—As has been just hinted, Magdeburg, Brandenburg, Pomerania, and Prussia Proper, are, in general, level countries; and the only mountains in the Prussian dominions are those of Silesia. The mountains in the south and west of this province may be regarded as a northern branch of the Carpathian chain, which itself forms the most southern boundary. This branch extends from Jablunka south-east to Friedberg in Upper Lusatia, north-west, near 200 British miles, and is called *Sudetische Gebirge*, or the Sudetic mountains; but it has also more minute appellations, the north-west part towards Lusatia being called Riesen, the middle part the Bohemian, and the south-east the Moravian chain. The highest peak of this remarkable chain, in the mountains of Riesen, is the *Schneekoppe*, or snow-head; in the Bohemian part, the *Eule* and the *Zotenberg*. The Moravian ridge divides into inferior branches, one of which forms a northern boundary of the principality of Troppau. In the north-western parts of Silesia are also detached mountains of considerable height; as the *Spitzberg*, and *Gratzberg*, the *Ruheberg*, the *Georgenberg*, and the *Reichenbach*. Of these mountains the precise height seems not to be ascertained, yet they may be concluded to yield greatly to the Carpathian chain already described.

Rivers.—Of the chief rivers of the Prussian dominions may be first mentioned the *Elbe*, which rises in the south of Bohemia, and pervades the duchy of Magdeburg: but this may with more propriety be deemed a German river. The *Spree*, which passes by Berlin, falls into the *Havel*, a river tributary of the *Elbe*. The *Oder*, the *Viadrus* of the ancients, may be regarded as a river entirely Prussian; it rises in the mountains of Moravia, about 14 miles from *Olmütz*, and, after watering Silesia, Brandenburg, and Pomerania, joins the *Baltic*, after a course of about 350 miles, for upwards of 200 of which it is navigable, thereby adding greatly to the wealth and commercial consequence of the countries through which it passes. Next appears another noble stream, the *Vistula*, which, rising in the Carpathian mountains, passes *Warsaw*, and joins the sea near *Dantzic*, after a circuit of about 450 miles, during a great part of which it is navigable. The *Pregel*, passing by *Konigsberg*, springs from some lakes and marshes in Prussian Poland. The *Niemen*, or *Memel*, a superior river, rises on the forest of *Minski* in Poland, and after a course of above 200 miles, falls into the *Curisch Haff*: this river now forms, in part, the Prussian boundary on the east.

Lakes.—The lakes in the Prussian dominions are numerous, especially in the eastern part, where,

where, among others, may be mentioned the Spelding See, which, with its creeks, extends more than 20 British miles in every direction. That region contains many other lakes, which supply the sources of the river Pregel. At their estuaries the rivers Oder, Vistula, and Memel, present singular inland sheets of water, in the German language styled *haffs*; that of the Oder is styled Grass Haff; that of the Vistula, Frisch Haff, with another inland creek called the lake of Drausen; and that of the Memel, Curisch Haff. The Frisch Haff is about 70 miles in length, and from three to ten miles broad, being separated from the Baltic by a long slip of land, said to have been thrown up by the tempests and waves about the year 1190. This lake or bay is of small depth, and will not admit vessels of much burden. The Curisch Haff, so called from its situation in the ancient duchy of Courland, is about 60 British miles in length, and about 30 in its greatest breadth. A similar ridge of land divides it from the Baltic; and it is full of dangerous shelves, and infested by frequent storms.

Little progress has yet been made in the construction of canals throughout this kingdom, those already enumerated at Berlin being the principal.

Forests.—The Prussian kingdom abounds in woods and forests, particularly Prussia Proper. Silesia presents a continuation of thick forests, which conspire with the elevated mountains to form an impenetrable barrier. Brandenburg and Pomerania are, in general, not so full of trees as the other provinces, but still they are not destitute of timber.

Animals.—Prussia Proper abounds in flocks and herds, and also in fine horses, the breeds of which are the same as those of the adjacent countries. The urus, or large and ferocious wild ox of Lithuania, is sometimes seen in Prussia Proper, but the race seems nearly extinct. The marmot, and a species of beaver, are also met with among the wild animals; among the more ferocious, the lynx, about the size of a fox, and sometimes the bear and the elk, wolves, foxes, and wild asses; together with plenty of game, such as white and common hares, elks, deers, roebucks, and wild boars. Pomerania is famous for its excellent breed of swine; and Silesia for its immense numbers of sheep, which were said by Krug, in 1802, to amount to 1,836,000, and to afford 4,000,000 lbs. of wool. The duchy of Magdeburg has an excellent breed of large horses, horned cattle, and fine sheep.

The fowls of this country are similar, in most respects, to those of other countries; but the geese of Pomerania are remarkably large, and

fine flavoured, the quills of which are very valuable and in great request. These birds are frequently dried in the ham fashion, and in that state exported to all parts of the coast round the Baltic, where they are highly relished.

The rivers of this kingdom abound with all kinds of fish, particularly salmon and sturgeon, the finest and largest of which are caught in the Oder; and the lakes are well stored with pike, carp, tench, &c.

Prussia has immense quantities of bees, which produce an abundance of honey; and a great deal of wax is exported to England and other countries. The different kinds of insects common in other countries are met with here.

Vegetables.—In general, throughout the whole of this monarchy, they grow wheat, oats, barley, millet-seed, pulse, and turnips, sufficient for the use of the inhabitants, together with hops, flax, hemp, aniseed, wild saffron, and all sorts of timber and forest trees of the best quality, in abundance.

In Silesia, according to Krug, in 1802, the culture of madder afforded an annual produce of 100,000 livres. They also cultivate tobacco, hops, and particularly hemp; in several parts one-sixth of the fields is sown with the latter. In Lower Silesia, which is the more temperate part, though situated to the north, grapes have been introduced, from which they make a small quantity of indifferent wine. In the environs of Breslau and Leignitz the orchards are wonderfully productive; there were lately reckoned more than three millions of feet planted with fruit-trees, without including 480,000 mulberry-trees, near Leignitz. They cultivate with success a Syrian plant that affords silk, and which botanists call *asclepias Syriaca*. In 1802 there were 80,000 feet of ground planted with this tree.

Minerals.—Prussia properly so called yields no metals, except a little iron ore; its peculiar and valuable mineral is amber, which is usually found at about the depth of 100 feet, and is often washed on shore by tempests. It is now generally supposed to be a vegetable production, mineralized by some unknown operation of nature. In the southern districts of Silesia, there were formerly mines of gold and silver, but the produce did not defray the expence, though in the time of Busching two or three of the latter metal continued to employ some labourers; and we understand that one of the mines is still worked at Reitstein, near Brieg, but with indifferent success. The whole of these mines afford less than formerly; those of iron and lead are the most important, there being annually derived from them about 300,000 cwt. of all sorts of iron, and 4700 cwt. of lead.

lead. 1,200,000 bushels of pit-coal are annually dug here; and there are quarries of various kinds of stone, besides antimony, saltpetre, alum, sulphur, vitriol, quicksilver, bismuth, arsenic, cobalt, &c.

Antiquities.—As to antiquities, few ancient monuments can be expected in regions where even a rude knowledge of the arts is comparatively so recent. Some Slavonic idols, cast in bronze, constitute almost the only Pagan antiquities; and the castles and churches erected after the introduction of the Christian religion have few singularities to attract attention.

Manners, Customs, &c. of the Inhabitants.—The original inhabitants of Prussia Proper were of Slavonic extraction; but within the last century they have been greatly mixed with the inhabitants of almost every country in Europe, whom that great monarch Frederic II. invited into his dominions. In their dress and manner of living, the higher classes attempt to imitate the French, whose irreligious sentiments spread like wildfire throughout these territories, introducing a laxity of moral conduct, and contempt of religious duties among the whole population. The descendants of the ancient inhabitants are a heavy plodding race; but these are fast disappearing, and in a very few years Prussia will retain no traces of its original population. In Silesia and Brandenburg are great numbers of Jews. As the inhabitants of Prussia in a great measure resemble those of the northern states of Germany, a more particular account of their manners and customs will be given in our description of that country.

Language and Literature.—The language of Prussia is the German. The literature of Prussia is of recent origin. Dantzic was the native country of Cluverius, an eminent geographer; and Copernicus, a great name in astronomy, was born at Thorn, as his predecessor, Regiomontanus, was at Koningsberg, his name being a Latin translation of that of his birth-place. Silesia has few pretensions to literary fame.

The universities that still belong to this kingdom are those of Koningsberg and Francfort on the Oder: but there are excellent public schools and seminaries of education throughout the whole kingdom.

Manufactures and Commerce.—If we except the linens of Silesia, the manufactures of the Prussian dominions are of small importance. Yet they afford for home consumption, glass, iron, brass, paper, and woollen cloth; and Frederic II. introduced a small manufacture of silk. Even the exports of Dantzic consist almost entirely of timber, corn, tallow, and similar articles; nor, except the ancient staple of grain, so

abundant in the level plains of Poland, can the commerce of Prussia appear in an important light. Amber is by nature a monopoly of the country, but fashion has rendered this branch of commerce insignificant. Among the considerable exports may, however, be named excellent timber of all kinds, skins, leather, flax, and hemp, and the linens of Silesia, many of which are sent into Holland, and sold under the name of Dutch manufacture. In return Prussia receives wine and other products of Holland, together with colonial and other produce from the different commercial nations of Europe.

The principal manufactures of Silesia are those of thread, twine, linen, flax, and damask: the chief exports are madder, mill-stones, thread, yarn, linen, and woollen cloth. Since Silesia has fallen under the dominion of the kings of Prussia, commerce has been considerably improved, and many excellent regulations have been made for that purpose. The linen manufactures give employment to almost all the inhabitants of the mountains. By the census of 1802 it appeared that there were 31,629 mechanics, and 46,988 labourers, in this employ; and the articles which they manufactured produced the sum of 9,039,984 Prussian crowns, or nearly 34,000,000 French francs, annually. The bleaching grounds of Silesia are not inferior to those of Holland; and the number of individuals who devote themselves to this branch of industry is calculated at 250,000. The woollen manufactures hold a secondary rank: according to the last enumeration there were found to be 15,839 labourers, and 5114 mechanics in this branch; and the merchandises manufactured by them were worth 4,643,934 Prussian crowns. The cotton manufactures are increasing rapidly: for the last ten years their produce has not averaged above 400,000 crowns, but at present it is double. The iron and steel manufactures have produced 1,470,409 crowns.

The total amount of the produce of manufactured industry in Silesia is at present upwards of 20,000,000 of crowns annually, and three-fourths of the whole are exported. Silesia is almost entirely indebted for its present prosperity to the excellent system of administration established by Frederic II.

Revenue.—In 1793, before the additions of Polish territory, the revenue was estimated at £3,880,000 sterling. The author of "*La Prusse, et sa Neutralite*," published in the year 1800, estimates the revenue at above £5,000,000 sterling; and observes, that this sum must be estimated not in itself, but as compared with the cheapness of provisions, &c. so that it equals a far higher nominal revenue; and there is no national debt. But since the conquest and dismemberment of this

this country by France, its finances are represented as being in a most ruinous state; and if we consider the heavy contributions which have been exacted to maintain the French army, perhaps the opinion given by a German journalist, in 1809, may not be thought beneath the mark, who asserted that the whole revenue did not exceed £2,000,000 sterling.

Religion.—The prevailing religion of Prussia is the Protestant, under its two chief divisions of Lutheran and Calvinistic. Many Catholics have been added by the acquisitions in Poland.

Army.—Previous to the invasion of the country by the French, the Prussian army, according to a late table, amounted to 178,897 infantry, and 39,867 cavalry: forming with artillery, &c. a total of 237,089; but it is said now scarcely to amount to 60,000.

Orders of Knighthood.—There are six orders of knighthood. The *Order of Concord* was instituted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Prussia, instituted, in 1685, the *Order of Generosity*. The knights wear a cross of eight points, enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Générosité*," pendent to a blue ribband. The same prince instituted the *Order of the Black Eagle* on the day of his coronation at Königsberg, in the year 1700; the sovereign is always grand-master; and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who must also be admitted into the Order of Generosity, previous to their receiving this; unless they be sovereign princes. The *Order of Merit* was instituted by Frederic II. in 1740, to reward the merit of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction of birth, religion, or country. The king is sovereign, and the number of knights unlimited. Frederic II. also instituted the orders of *St. Stephen* and *St. John*; the former in 1754, the latter in 1756.

Laws and Government.—His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state: viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also some other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Besides these institutions, Frederic II. erected a board for commerce and navigation.

History.—As this kingdom is recent, and composed of several ancient states, its historical epochs and antiquities are complex. We shall present our readers, in the first place, with the

historical epochs of Prussia Proper, and afterwards with those of the house of Brandenburg.

"The historical epochs of Prussia Proper," says Pinkerton, "are not deserving of much notice. A faint dawn of history, in the middle ages, discloses at the mouth of the Vistula the Pruzzi, a Slavonic nation, who were afterwards subdued by the knights of the Teutonic order.

"1. This order originated A. D. 1190, in the camp of the Crusaders before Acca, or Acre, from some citizens of Lubec, and Bremen, who united to relieve the wants of their German brethren. Next year a bull of institution was obtained from the pope, ordering them to wear a black cross on a white mantle, and to follow the rule of St. Augustin, with all the privileges granted to the Knights Templars. The crusades to Palestine having failed, the knights directed their enterprise against the Pagans of the north of Germany, A. D. 1227; and in a few years conquered Prussia, and founded several cities.

"2. The knights thus established in Prussia directed their efforts against the Lithuanians, and other Pagans in the east. But repeated wars with Poland were less fortunate; and about 1446 the four chief cities of Prussia, Elbing, Thorn, Königsberg, and Dantzic, withdrew their allegiance from the Teutonic order, and claimed the protection of Poland.

"3. In 1466 Casimir king of Poland forced the Teutonic order to abandon the eastern part of Prussia, and to pay homage for the western part.

"4. Albert of Brandenburg, grand-master of the order, obtained from his maternal uncle, Sigismund king of Poland, the hereditary investiture of all that the order possessed in Prussia, and embraced the Lutheran religion. But particular grand-masters continue to be appointed by the emperor of Germany.

"5. In 1569 Joachim II., elector of Brandenburg, had obtained from the Polish monarch the succession to the duchy of Prussia, in case the possessor died without heirs; but this addition of power and territory did not take place till 1618, when John Sigismund elector of Brandenburg acquired this duchy; and in 1621, his successor received the solemn investiture from the king of Poland. Nor was it, as already mentioned, an independent sovereignty till 1656, after which period the chief events may be traced under those of Brandenburg, which are as follow:

"1. The German genealogists derive the house of Brandenburg from Thassilo, count of Hohenzollern, who lived about the ninth century. Sigefred, a Saxon count, having married a daughter of Henry king of Italy, was appointed margrave of Brandenburg, A. D. 927; but many centuries elapsed before this dignity fell to the ancestor

of the present family. The province had been for some centuries chiefly possessed by Slavonic nations, but the margrave soon raised it to considerable distinction. The succession of these potentates, of various families, and their petty wars would little interest the reader.

"2. The emperor Charles IV. in 1373, assigned Brandenburg to his second son Sigismund, who, in 1415, being then emperor of Germany, sold this margravate and electorate to Frederic burgrave of Nuremburg, for 400,000 ducats. Frederic, the ancestor of the present reigning race, displayed considerable abilities.

"3. Joachim II. elector of Brandenburg, embraced the Lutheran religion in 1539, which has since been the ruling system of the state.

"4. Frederic-William, surnamed the great elector, succeeded his father in 1640; and in 1650 compelled the king of Poland to declare Prussia an independent state, it having formerly been held of the Polish sovereigns. This prince is highly praised by his royal descendant, the author of *Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg*, as the chief founder of the power of that family. He was succeeded in 1688 by his son.

"5. Frederic III. who supporting the emperor in the contest for the Spanish succession, was by him declared king of Prussia; under which title he was proclaimed at Koningsberg, on the 18th day of January, 1701, he himself placing the crown upon his head."

His grandson, Frederic II., in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederic-William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of strong natural abilities, and considerably increased the revenues of his country, but too often at the expence of humanity. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions sterling in his treasury, which enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful resources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the age. He improved the arts of peace as well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, philosopher, and legislator. In the year 1783, he published a rescript, signifying his pleasure that no kneeling should in future be practised in honour of his person, assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the Divinity. Near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him, in 1782, in draining marshes, establishing factories, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy.

The late king of Prussia, who succeeded his uncle, August 17, 1786, made many salutary regulations for his subjects, and established a court of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of duelling in his dominions. His exertions against France, till the treaty of peace concluded on the 5th of April, 1795, will be found in our account of that country. Frederic-William II. died at Berlin, of a dropsy, November 16, 1797, and was succeeded by his son, Frederic-William III., the present sovereign, who, for some time after his accession, evinced a desire to cultivate peace with all the neighbouring kingdoms; but he appears to have been strangely infatuated and inactive during the coalition formed between Russia and Austria against France in 1805, when it is fairly to be inferred, if he had taken this favourable opportunity of humbling the power of the French usurper, their joint efforts would have ultimately succeeded. The motives that induced the government of Prussia to remain neutral during this short but sanguinary conflict, have never yet been fully explained. But no sooner had Napoleon forced the two emperors into a treaty of peace with France, then he began to dictate to and interfere in the internal government of Prussia in such a manner as to convince the unfortunate Frederic-William, when too late, that he had lost the most favourable opportunity of ridding Europe of a merciless and sanguinary tyrant. He resolved, however, before he tamely submitted to become a vassal to France, to make one effort to emancipate his own country and the rest of the continent of Europe from her dominion. For the better effecting this object he formed an alliance with the emperor of Russia, who once more eagerly entered the lists against Bonaparte. With the unfortunate termination of this war our readers cannot be unacquainted; and it will only be necessary for us to state here, that, to the account already given under our historical summary of Russian history, a fuller and more comprehensive detail will appear under our history of the French empire. By the treaty of Tilsit, Prussia lost some of her most valuable provinces; all her acquisitions in Poland in 1793 were sequestered, and formed into a republic, called the Duchy of Warsaw; while Anspach, Embden, &c. were added to the different kingdoms forming the Confederation of the Rhine; and the principality of Neufchatel and Valengin, in Switzerland, have been created into a principedom, of which Marshal Berthier has been made a prince. Since that period nothing particular has occurred.

CHAP. VIII.

THE

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

SECTION I.

General and Preliminary Observations—Names—Situation and Extent—Boundaries—Divisions, Chief Cities, Towns, &c.—Population, &c.

THE dominions which remain subject to the house of Austria embrace many ancient kingdoms and states, which are here brought under one point of view; it having been justly observed, to the reproach of modern geography, that by the retention of antiquated divisions, and the minuteness of separate description, it has not made an uniform progress with modern history and politics, which it ought to illustrate. Many have imagined that the power of the house of Austria was chiefly founded on its bearing the imperial title; whereas, even as it is now, its hereditary domains entitle it to rank among the chief European powers; and from its recent alliance and close connection with France, it may be certainly considered as the second great power on the continent.

Names.—The archduchy of Austria is comprised in the ancient Roman province of *Pannonia*, the *Vindobona* of which is modern Vienna. But that part of Austria which lies north of the Danube, was occupied by the Quadi, a barbaric nation, who infested the adjoining provinces of *Pannonia* and *Noricum*; the latter being the ancient appellation of the western part of Austria, on the south of the Danube. The German name and division of *Oster-Reich**, or the eastern kingdom, softened into *Austria* by the Italian and French enunciation, arose after Charlemagne had established the western empire, being a remnant of the sovereignty of what was called Eastern France, established by that conqueror. Hungary, a part of which belonged to ancient Dacia, has for several ages been considered as deriving its name from having been the residence of the

ancient *Huns*; but Mr. Gibbon derives its modern appellation from the *Ugurs*, a Finnish nation, who, after spreading devastation through a great part of Germany, fixed their residence here in the 10th century. The Hungarians style themselves *Magiar*; and their language approaches to the Finnish dialect. Bohemia, or the habitation of the Boii, was a central province of Barbaric Germany, afterwards seized by a Slavonic tribe, whose chiefs were originally styled Dukes of Bohemia. Transylvania, and the Buckovina, are parts of the province of Dacia, founded by Trajan: the name seems derived from the woody passes of the Carpathian mountains, and was first given by the monkish writers.

Situation and Extent.—The Austrian dominions are situated between 45 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and 12 and 27 degrees of east longitude. From the frontiers of the Tyrol to the utmost limits of Transylvania, their length is supposed to be about 700 British miles; and the breadth about 520, from the river Bug, which forms a boundary between Austria and the duchy of Warsaw, to the Save, which divides the Austrian from the Turkish sovereignty.

Boundaries.—The Austrian empire is bounded on the north by the river Bug, which divides it from the duchy of Warsaw, the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from the kingdom of Saxony, and Russian Poland; on the east by Russian Poland and Turkey; on the south by Turkey and the gulf of Venice; and on the west by the Tyrol and the kingdoms of Bavaria and Saxony.

The precise boundaries cannot, in the present unsettled state of the continent, be furnished with any degree of accuracy, as of late it has frequently changed its limits, both on the side of Russia and Turkey, as well as of Bavaria; and in these quarters continual changes are daily taking place.

* Several of the German names of Austrian provinces differ considerably from our appellations: Carinthia is *Carnten*; Carniola, *Krain*; Stiria, *Steyermärk*; Croatia, *Crabeten*; Bohemia, *Bohmen*; Moravia, *Mahren*; Galitz, or Galitzia is styled *Gallicia*.

Divisions, &c.—This extensive and powerful monarchy is composed of the following provinces and countries.

	Sq. Miles.	Population.
Archduchy of Austria Proper	10,080	1,820,000
Duchies of {		
Stiria	4,592	900,000
Carinthia	3,100	300,000
Carniola	3,424	450,000
Friul, or Goritia	1,600	400,000
Principality of Salzburg	3,520	20,000
Berchtolsgraden	160	115,000
Territory of Trieste	120	40,000
Kingdom of Bohemia	14,400	2,810,000
Marquisate of Moravia	6,400	1,260,000
Kingdom of Hungary	59,500	6,300,000
Gallicia and Lodomeria	37,000	3,900,000
Austrian Silesia	1,296	250,000
Transylvania	16,400	1,500,000
The Buckovina	2,900	130,000
Slavonia and Croatia	12,800	900,000
Dalmatia	4,640	300,000
Istria	3,000	100,000
	174,932	21,490,000

The intelligent reader who attentively peruses the preceding table will perceive that recent events have effected a material change in the state of the Austrian dominions. Venice has become a part of the kingdom of Italy. The Tyrol has been assigned to the king of Bavaria, who, by the treaty of Presburg in 1805, also shares with the new king of Wirtemberg the former Austrian possessions in Swabia; while the counties of Salzburg and Berchtolsgraden are incorporated with the empire of Austria. By this remarkable treaty the Austrian emperor ceded to his majesty the king of Bavaria the margraviate of Bergau, and its dependencies; the principality of Eichstadt; that part of the territory of Passau belonging to the elector of Salzburg, and situated between Bohemia, Austria, the Danube, and the Inn; the country of Tyrol, comprehending the principalities of Brixen and Botzen, the seven lordships of the Voralberg, with their detached dependencies; the county of Hohenems, the county of Königsegg, Rottensels, the lordships of Tetnany and Argen, and the town and territory of Lindau. To the king of Wirtemberg, the five cities of the Danube, to wit, Chingen, Munderkengen, Rufflingen, Menzen, and Salgau, with their dependencies, the city of Constance excepted; that part of the Brisgau which extends in the possession of Wirtemberg, and situated to the east of a line drawn from Schlegelburg to Molbach, and the towns and territories of Willengen and Brentengen. To the elector of Baden, the Brisgau (with the exception of the branch and separate portions above described),

the Qrtensaw and their dependencies, the city of Constance, and the commandery of Meinau.

Austria was to have been partly indemnified for these important cessions by the acquisition of Bosnia and Servia from the Turks; but the French, with the usual Machiavelian policy of their government, seized on Cattaro, and the Dalmatian territories of the former republic of Venice, and seem determined to maintain their sway in that quarter of Europe, for the purpose not only of diminishing the power of Austria, but of over-awing Turkey. Thus it is evident, that the importance of Austria is reduced to a level from which, perhaps, she will never again emerge. Yet the vast extent of territory which forms her present empire will cause her to rank, as we have previously observed, amongst the first of European powers.

Of the different provinces we shall proceed to give a description, upon the same plan as has been hitherto adopted.

ARCHDUCHY OF AUSTRIA, OR AUSTRIA PROPER.

This division of the empire is bounded on the north by Bohemia and Moravia; on the east by Hungary; on the south by Stiria and Carinthia; and on the west by the river Inn, which divides it from Bavaria, and the principality (formerly archbishopric) of Salzburg; being about 200 miles in length, and nearly of a similar width. It excels all the provinces of this empire, or even of Germany, in the fertility of its soil, the richness of its pastures, and the wholesomeness of the air. Corn, wine, and fruits are very plentiful; and the saffron is said to be better than that of the East Indies. It is divided by the river Enns into two divisions, which are distinguished by the names of UPPER and LOWER AUSTRIA: the former of which contains 36 cities and 256 market-towns; and the latter, 14 cities, and 88 market-towns. Among the principal places are,

1. *Vienna*, the capital of this duchy, and the chief city of the Austrian dominions. It lies on the south or western side of the Danube, in a fertile plain, watered by a branch of that river (beyond which stands the suburb of Leopoldstadt), and by the little river Wien. The Danube is here very wide, and contains several woody isles: the country towards the north and east is open and level; but on the south and west, hilly and variegated with trees. It is founded on the site of the ancient *Vindobona*, but was of little note till the 12th century, when it became the residence of the dukes of Austria, and was fortified in the manner of that age. It has been twice ineffectually

ineffectually besieged by the Turks, in 1539 and 1683, but yielded without much resistance to the French, in 1805 and 1809, under the conduct of the Emperor Napoleon. The city itself is not large, being supposed to contain not more than 60,000 inhabitants. It is surrounded by very strong fortifications; and on the outside is a circular field, 600 yards in width, upon which no houses are allowed to be built; so that the suburbs are full that distance from the city, and, being planted with trees, have a beautiful and salutary effect. The streets in general are narrow, and in part crooked. The houses are generally very high, and built of brick covered with stucco, in a more durable manner than commonly practised in England; the finest sand being chosen, and the lime, after having been slacked, remaining for a twelvemonth, covered with sand and boards, before it is applied to the intended use. A great singularity pertaining to these houses is, that within the fortifications they have three or four cellars one under another, with an open space in the middle of each arched roof, for the communication of air; and from the lowermost of all there is a tube to the top, to let in air from the streets. An odd custom prevails of putting iron bars to all the windows, up to the very tops of the houses, which makes them all look like so many prisons. A remarkable prerogative of the emperor is, that the second floor of every burgher's house belongs to him, and is assigned to whomsoever he thinks proper (generally officers of the imperial guard); so that lodgings are extremely dear; and the owners can only purchase an exemption by paying a sum of money for the erection of barracks. The winds often blow so strong from the north and north-east, that it is dangerous and troublesome to walk the streets.

Among the chief edifices is the metropolitan church of St. Stephen, the strongest built church in Europe. It is built entirely of free-stone, and is 114 yards long, and 48 broad; and the steeple is 447 feet high. Here is a fine monument of Prince Eugene of Savoy. Instead of a fane, there is a black spread eagle, over which is a gilded cross. Adjoining to this church is the archbishop's palace, the front of which is very striking. There are fifty other noble churches in Vienna, besides the one just mentioned, the imperial palace, library, and arsenal, the house of assembly for the states of Lower Austria, the council-house, the university, and 21 monasteries. There is a bank under the management of its own magistrates, and a court of commerce, immediately subject to the Aulic council. The Prater, or imperial park, is an island in the Danube, well planted with wood; and to the south is the cha-

pel of Hernaltz, which during Lent is much frequented for the sake of amusement, as well as of devotion.

In one of the suburbs is the palace of Belvedere, which formerly belonged to prince Eugene; and at the distance of a few miles stands Schoenbrunn, another imperial palace. Of all the buildings at Vienna the palace of prince Eugene is undoubtedly the finest. Here is a spacious saloon, adorned with large pictures, representing the chief victories of the prince over the French and the Turks; and in two rooms next to this, a suit of rich tapestry, made by the famous Devos, at Brussels. In the room adjoining the prince's bedchamber are several exquisite pieces of painting; and in the next apartment is a lustre of rock crystal. The gardens lie in a slope, and are very well adapted for the elegant water-works there exhibited. In one part, called Paradise, is a spacious aviary, made of curious wire-work, with beautiful walks and gilt summer-houses; also a fine orangery, where some of the trees remain out all winter, with a cover only over the tops of them. The species of uncommon herbs growing here are innumerable. In this palace is also a fine menagerie. There is another palace within the city, in which prince Eugene resided in winter, a superb building, magnificently furnished with very expensive articles, costly pictures, a chimney-piece of grey marble, and a crystal lustre. In this palace is a fine library, consisting of 14,000 volumes, mostly folios; and a fine collection of engraved portraits, consisting of 48 volumes of illustrious persons in France, 61 volumes of those in Germany, 10 of the United Provinces, 9 of the Spanish Netherlands, &c. 2 of Lorrain, 13 of Great Britain, &c. The prince of Lichtenstein has three palaces in Vienna, with fine paintings and great curiosities. The great staircase in one of these palaces consists of two flights, every step being a single block of red marble. Italy, which is famed for magnificent structures, affords very few equal to this: the walks, parterres, water-works, and statues, make the garden a most delightful place, and it commands a fine prospect. The richest subject, Riesbeck says, was this Prince Lichtenstein, who had about £90,000 sterling a year, while Esterhazy only enjoyed £60,000.

Near prince Eugene's gardens in the suburbs is the prince of Schwartzenburg's palace, celebrated for its gardens. The sumptuousness of this edifice eclipses the Favorita, or imperial palace that stands near it. The saloons, staircases, marble tables, looking-glasses, porcelain vases, paintings, and other rich furniture, make this one of the finest palaces in or near Vienna. The trees in the large orangery stand here also

in the open ground, but are sheltered in winter by a little shed placed over them, and which can occasionally be warmed. The walks, groves, and water-works, are extremely beautiful: the last are supplied by an hydraulic machine, worked by fire, which throws up in 24 hours, into a large reservoir, above 11,880 hogsheads of water.

The imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuscripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuscripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of them is questionable, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to be written 1500 years ago in gold letters upon purple. Here are likewise many thousand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vast collection of other curiosities in art and nature. It is very lofty, and adorned with good paintings in fresco, sculpture, and a superb gallery, so that it has the appearance of a temple. The importance of its manuscripts may be seen in Lambecii's *Bibliotheca Vindobonensis*, published in ten volumes folio, as also in Nesselius's Catalogue. They are said to be above 10,000 in number. Among the Greek manuscripts is a very ancient Dioscorides, written in a large character on vellum, with the herbs painted in their natural colours. This library is inferior to none but the Vatican at Rome, and that at Paris, which may exceed it as to manuscripts, but not in printed volumes. The collection of medals in this library consists of a great number of articles, ancient and modern, some very curious and costly. The library is open every day; the emperor's chief librarian is always the first physician, who appoints two sub-librarians. The attention paid to foreigners who visit this royal collection is both pleasing and flattering.

The imperial museum is in the castle; and one cannot without astonishment see the infinite variety of curiosities in gold, silver, ivory, and mother-of-pearl; mathematical instruments of exquisite workmanship, excellent pictures, antique intaglios; vases of agate, jasper, crystal, garnet, emerald, &c. jewels of inestimable value, and abundance of reliques.

Though Vienna is much exposed to the northern and eastern winds, yet the southern hills serve as a fence against the rain, and the traveller rather complains of dust than of moisture. The pleasantness of the environs in general is improved by the happy aspect of the Austrian peasantry.

The suburbs are not near so populous in proportion to their size as the city; as many houses in the former have extensive gardens belonging

to them, and as many families who spend the summer in the suburbs, reside during the winter within the fortifications. Six of the streets belonging to the suburbs, leading to the six gates of the city, are spacious and handsome.

Provisions of all kinds abound in Vienna, particularly wild boars, venison, and game; many small birds, rejected by us, being included among the latter. Livers of geese are esteemed a peculiar delicacy; nor are tortoises, frogs, and snails rejected. The people delight in the combats of wild beasts and of bulls.

There is a sort of harbour on the Danube, where are magazines of naval stores; and ships have been fitted out to serve on that river against the Turks. The extensive navigation of this river adds considerably to the commerce of the city. The manufactures are not inconsiderable: Hoeck says there are 140,000 cotton workmen at Vienna, and some towns in Lower Austria.

In 1805 this city was computed by several French officers, who took much pains in order to get accurate information, to contain, exclusive of the military, near 300,000 inhabitants. It stands 625 miles S.E. of Paris, and 600 in the same direction from London.

2. *Lintz*, a strong city, the capital of Upper Austria, 92 miles W. of Vienna. It is situated on the Danube, over which it has a bridge of boats, which renders this city a great thoroughfare. The houses in general are well built of stone, and the streets are open and regular. In the centre of the principal street is a large hall, where the assembly of the states of Upper Austria is held. The number of the inhabitants is estimated at 150,000, who are engaged in several extensive manufactures.

3. *Ens*, a considerable town, situated at the junction of the river of that name with the Danube, about 30 miles E. of Lintz. It is well built and strongly fortified, being defended by two castles. This is a place of considerable traffic, as the river is navigable for a great distance into the interior of the country.

STIRIA,

Situated to the south of the archduchy of Austria, with Hungary on the east, and Carniola on the south, is about 125 miles in length, and from 25 to 45 in breadth. It is divided into UPPER and LOWER STIRIA; and though in general a mountainous country, is well cultivated, and produces abundance of every kind of grain. Here are extensive mines of corn, copper, &c. which have been worked successfully these thousand years, and are still productive. The Stirian steel is in high estimation. In the whole duchy are 120 cities and towns, and nearly 500 citadels, many

many of which are built on the summits of rocks. The chief places are,

1. *Gratz*, a strong and regularly fortified city, situated upon the river Muehr, 70 miles S.S.W. of Vienna. The houses are indifferently built of stone; and there are a great number of ancient churches and convents, together with a good university, a famous arsenal, and an almost impregnable castle built upon a rock, in which the assembly of the states is held. The inhabitants are said to exceed 30,000 in number.

2. *Judenberg*, the capital of Upper Stiria, is, though not large, a very handsome town. It is seated upon the river Muehr, about 30 miles W. of Gratz. The public buildings are magnificent; and here is a handsome square, composed of elegant and well-built houses. The inhabitants do not exceed 5000.

CARINTHIA,

Situated to the south-west of Stiria, is likewise a hilly and mountainous country, having several extensive forests, lakes, &c. and containing mines of iron and lead. There are many fertile vales, which produce corn, wine, and oil; though not in sufficient abundance to supply the inhabitants. It contains 31 towns, and a number of fortresses. The principal of which are,

1. *Clagenfurt*, a strong city, situated on the river Glen, and surrounded by a thick wall, within which are six neat churches and three convents. Here is an extensive manufacture of fine woollen cloth. This place is said to contain about 10,000 inhabitants.

2. *Villach*, a considerable town, situated near the baths of Toplitz, which renders it a great place of resort for valetudinarians, who come hither for the benefit of the waters. The town is tolerably well built, having several good houses and spacious streets; but the trade is inconsiderable.

CARNIOLA,

To the south of Stiria, is 120 miles long, and 100 broad; it is in general mountainous and rocky, but in many places produces not only good pasturage, but excellent corn, flax, hemp, and millet. Besides the mines of lead, iron, and copper, the quicksilver mines may be deemed a natural curiosity, a particular description of which will be given under our mineralogy of this empire. This country abounds in all sorts of fine and delicious fruit; and black cattle and horses are bred in great abundance. This duchy is said to contain 56 cities and market-towns, 200 citadels, and 4000 villages. The principal places are,

1. *Laybach*, situated on a river of the same

name, which runs into the Save, 28 miles N. of Triest. It is a large and populous city, tolerably built, with good stone houses and airy streets. The cathedral is a fine ancient fabric; and the other public buildings are neat and commodious. Laybach contains nearly 20,000 souls.

2. *Fiume*, or *St. Veit*, a populous sea-port, situated at the upper extremity of the Adriatic Sea, or gulf of Venice. It has a good harbour, defended by a strong battery. The town is indifferently built, and its situation is said not to be altogether healthy. Its commerce is extensive, being noted for its excellent grapes, figs, and other fruits. It is supposed to contain nearly 10,000 inhabitants.

AUSTRIAN FRIULI.

This province is situated between Carinthia, Carniola, the ancient duchy of Venice, and the territory of Triest. It is divided into the two counties of Goritz and Gradisca. The face of the whole country is mountainous, interspersed with many fertile vales, which produce fruits, oil, wine, and silk. The chief place is

Goritz, or *Gorz*, situated on the river Lisonzo, 20 miles N.N.W. of Triest. It is strongly fortified, being defended on the only weak side by an almost impregnable fortress. The houses are neatly built; but the place is not handsome. It contains about 9000 inhabitants.

SALTZBURG,

An ancient archbishopric of Bavaria, but now a principality of the empire of Austria, ceded by the treaty of Presburg in 1805. It is about 100 miles long, and 60 broad, and is situated to the north of Carinthia. It is in general very mountainous and rugged, and contains mines of silver, copper, and iron. No manner of grain is sown here; but hay of a peculiar goodness is produced in every part. It contains 6 cities, and 25 market-towns. In 1732 above 30,000 Lutheran inhabitants of this archbishopric withdrew with their effects into other European Protestant countries and America, in consequence of the intolerant spirit of the archbishop. The archbishopric was secularized by the treaty of Presburg in 1805, and is now converted into a principality under the government of its own sovereign prince. The chief place is

Saltzburg, a large and well-fortified city, situated upon the river Saltz, 140 miles W.S.W. of Vienna. It is populous and well built, although the streets are narrow and badly paved. The palace is a superb edifice, and has a magnificent garden, adorned with statues, and planted with uncommon trees. This is the prince's summer residence. There is another which he usually inhabits

inhabits during winter, and which contains 163 apartments, all richly furnished, without reckoning the halls and galleries. The cathedral is a venerable edifice, finely built with free-stone and marble, and contains five organs. The ancient university depends chiefly for support upon the Benedictines, who have here an old monastery with a valuable library. Another university was founded in 1737 for the education of the young noblemen and gentlemen of the surrounding country. Near this town are extensive salt-works, from whence its name seems to have been derived. The inhabitants amount to near 30,000.

BERCHTOLSGADEN,

A small principality, situated to the south of Salzburg. It is only about 10 miles square, and was anciently subject to an abbot, appointed by the pope. This territory, together with that of Salzburg, was given as an indemnity to the grand duke of Tuscany by the treaty of Lunéville, and was finally ceded to Austria in 1805, but is under the government of its own prince.

Berchtolsgrad, the capital, is a small neat town, but contains nothing worthy of particular description.

TRIEST.

The small territory of Triest is situated between Carniola, Friuli, and the Adriatic Sea. It extends about 13 miles in length, and 7 in width, and is very fertile, abounding in corn, wine, oil, and sea-salt, which is extracted at two villages contiguous to the capital.

Triest, the chief town, is finely situated for trade, on the side of a hill at the upper extremity of the Venetian Gulf. The streets are narrow; and those of long standing are but indifferently built, while those of modern erection are handsome and spacious. Here is a large square, in which a celebrated annual fair is held. The harbour consists of an inner and outer basin, and has been greatly improved of late years. It is strongly fortified, and guarded by a fine mole. This is a place of great trade during peace; and in 1808 not less than 6000 vessels entered the port: but it has suffered much of late from the blockade of an English squadron. It is the see of a bishop, and has a fine cathedral, and several churches, together with 30,000 inhabitants.

BOHEMIA.

The ancient kingdom of Bohemia (including Moravia) was about 300 miles long, and 250 broad; but, considering it as a province of the empire, exclusive of Moravia, it is not more than 200 miles in length, and 150 in breadth; being bounded on the north by the kingdom of Saxony

and the duchy of Warsaw, on the east by the duchy of Warsaw and Moravia, on the west by the kingdoms of Bavaria and Saxony, and on the south by Austria Proper. It is divided into 16 circles, to enter into a particular description of which would greatly exceed our limits. It is almost entirely surrounded by high mountains and woods, in which are abundance of all sorts of wild animals. The integral parts abound in all the necessaries of life, and afford excellent pasturage. In the mountains are mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, iron, &c. The rivers abound in a great variety of fish, and here is great abundance of fruits and vegetables. The forms (and only the forms) of the ancient constitution of this country subsist; for the government, under the Austrian emperor, is despotic. The states are composed of the nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns; the executive government is under the jurisdiction of a viceroy. The chief places are,

1. *Prague*, the capital of this kingdom, and the second city in the empire. It comprehends three towns, the Old, the New, and the Little Town, and is about 15 English miles in circuit. The Old Town is very populous; the houses are wholly built of stone, for the most part of three stories high, but the streets are in general narrow. Here are two fine edifices; one of which is the palace of the ancient sovereigns; and the other the university, which is greatly frequented and in high estimation. In this quarter the Jews have the liberty to reside, where they have nine synagogues. The New Town surrounds the Old, and contains fine structures, handsome gardens, and large streets. The Little Town was built on the spot where formerly was a forest; and there is a poplar tree yet standing, which they affirm has grown there upwards of 1000 years. In this quarter is a magnificent royal castle, well defended. The cathedral of this city is a venerable structure, besides which there are 92 churches and chapels, and nearly 40 convents. It contains about 83,000 inhabitants, of whom about 12,000 are Jews. The river Moldau, or Muldaw runs through the city, separating the Old from the New; and over it there is a handsome stone bridge of 18 arches, first built in 1357, which is 1770 feet in length, and 35 in breadth, having a strong tower at each end. This city is not a place of very great trade; but what there is, is chiefly carried on by the Jews. Prague has been exposed to frequent sieges, from which it has greatly suffered. It stands 235 miles N. N. W. of Vienna, 158 S. S. E. of Berlin, and 600 S. E. of London.

2. *Reichenberg*, a considerable town, situated near the source of the river Moldau, on the confines

Lines of Austria Proper. The houses are indifferently built, and the streets are open and clean. This place is particularly noted on account of its extensive manufactures of linens and woollens. Its population is estimated to exceed 10,000 souls.

3. *Egra*, or *Eger*, a neat city, chiefly noted for its mineral waters, which are in high estimation, and are much frequented. The town is situated on a river of the same name, 76 miles west of Prague, and is well fortified.

MORAVIA,

Situated to the S. E. of Bohemia, is about 140 miles long, and 90 broad. It is partly mountainous and woody, and partly champaign, with numerous morasses, bogs, and lakes, and has constantly remained annexed to the states of Bohemia. Its name is derived from the river Morava, or Moraw, which runs through it. Between the hills are several fertile vales, producing all the necessaries and most of the luxuries of life. It was in this country that the *Unitas Fratrum*, or Brethren called Moravians, were first formed into societies. This country is divided into 6 circles, the chief places in which are,

1. *Brunn*, the modern capital, situated on a small river of the same name near the centre of the country. It is the seat of the executive government, being the residence of the Austrian governor. It has been considerably improved of late years, and has some thriving manufactures of linens and woollens, velvet, and plush. The public edifices are handsome and striking. This city is strongly fortified; and the number of inhabitants is estimated at 18,000.

2. *Olmütz*, the ancient capital, seated on the river Morava, is a handsome and populous town, embellished with a famous college, a riding-school, and learned society. It is well fortified, and carries on a considerable trade. Its population is estimated to exceed 12,000 souls.

HUNGARY,

Situated to the south-east of Moravia is bounded on the north by Galicia, on the east by the same country and Transylvania, on the south by Turkey, and on the west by Austria Proper and Moravia; being about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth. It is divided into Upper and Lower Hungary, situated on opposite sides of the Danube; these again are each divided into two circles, which are subdivided into *gespannschafts*, or counties, 52 in number. The climate in the southern part is very unwholesome, owing to the lakes and morasses with which it abounds, and hence it has been termed the grave of the Germans. It produces all the ne-

cessaries of life in great plenty, and is famous for excellent wines. A great singularity of the towns of this kingdom consists in their having, in general, two names; the one is that by which it is known in Hungary, and the other is the German name. The chief places are,

1. *Buda*, or, as it is called by the Germans, *Offen*, which for a series of years was always considered the capital of Hungary; but owing to the continued invasions of the Turks; the seat of government was removed to Presburg, 150 years ago. But, as the situation of the last mentioned city was very uncentral, in 1784 the seat of the provincial government and public offices was restored to Buda, which may still be regarded as the capital of Hungary. It has neither fortifications nor gates, but extends for upwards of three miles along both sides of the Danube: that part of the city situated to the south is Buda properly so called, while the other is termed the suburb of Pesth; they are united by a bridge of boats full a quarter of a mile in length. The chief public and private buildings are in Pesth, and within the fortress: the royal palace in particular is a large and stately edifice; and the hospital for invalids, now used as barracks, is fine and spacious. At Buda there are hot springs, the buildings over which are very magnificent. The people, like those of Vienna, delight in bull-feasts and similar exhibitions. Buda contains, according to Dr. Townson, about 22,000 inhabitants, and Pesth about 16,000, making a total population of 38,000 souls. At Buda, the Hungarian regalia are now kept; they were removed to Vienna, in 1784, by the emperor Joseph II.; but this measure gave so great offence, and excited such violent discontent, that they were sent back in 1790, and received with the most extravagant testimonies of joy, the whole city and suburbs being illuminated. The crown was originally sent, A. D. 1000, by pope Sylvester II., to Stephen king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors: it is of solid gold, ornamented with 53 sapphires, 50 rubies, 1 large emerald, and 338 pearls; besides which, are the images of the apostles and patriarchs: the other parts of the regalia are equally rich and valuable. Buda stands 125 miles E. S. E. of Vienna. In the circumjacent country are extensive vineyards, producing a red wine in high estimation.

2. *Presburg*, or, as styled by the Germans, *Pozen*, is beautifully situated on the side of a hill near the Danube, towards the western extremity of Hungary; being only about 35 British miles to the east of Vienna. The Danube is here very rapid, and about 250 yards in width. The inhabitants are computed at 30,000, about one quarter

ter of whom are Lutherans, who are so opulent as to pay half the taxes. Jews also abound in this city. It has a good theatre, and convenient coffee-houses, which contribute to the pleasure of the inhabitants. Presburg is built much after the manner of Vienna, the suburbs being much larger and more handsome than the city. The castle is a fine Gothic structure, from the top of which is an extensive view into the interior of the country. Presburg is the capital of Lower Hungary.

3. *Caschau*, or *Kaschaw*, the capital of Upper Hungary, is a neat place, situated upon the river Theisse, 75 miles N.E. of Buda. It contains two churches, one of which is a large and venerable edifice of great dimensions, supposed to be one of the finest and most ancient Christian churches in Europe. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 8000.

4. *Cremnitz*, an extensive town, situated in the midst of the most extensive silver mines in Europe. It is but meanly built, with narrow streets; and contains about 6000 souls.

5. *Tyrnau*, a neat and well-built place, containing about 6000 inhabitants, and so many churches that it has been called Little Rome. It was also the seat of a university, but that has been recently removed to Pesth.

6. *Tokay*, a small city, with 6000 inhabitants, famous for its excellent wine, which is in great request all over Europe.

Besides the above, there are a number of other well-fortified towns, too numerous for insertion.

GALLICIA AND LODOMERIA, OR AUSTRIAN POLAND.

This part of the ancient and once powerful kingdom of Poland is situated between 48 and 52 deg. 20 min. north latitude, and 18 and 26 deg. east longitude, being about 320 miles long, and 290 broad. It is bounded on the north and east by Prussian and Russian Poland; on the south by Hungary, Transylvania, and Silesia; and on the west by Silesia. This country is divided into East and West Galicia; the former consisting of the territory assigned to Austria, in the first division of Poland, in 1772; and the latter, of the part added on the final division and extinction of that kingdom in 1795.

East Galicia, or Galicia Proper, is divided into 18 circles or districts; viz. those of Mislo-witz, Ducla, Rzesow, Sanok, Sambor, Lemberg, Tomaschow, Zamosk, Belz, Brody*, Zlockzow,

Mariampol, Stanislaw, Zaleszik, Lublin, Chelm, Bial, and Siedlitz.

West Galicia, or Lodomeria, is divided into the following 12 circles; Bochnia, Sandez, Przemislaw, Tornow, Cracow, Kielz, Konsk, Olkush, Radomir, Ingul, Radom, and Lanow.

The chief towns of East Galicia are,

1. *Lemberg*, or *Leopol*, now the capital of all Galicia, and the seat of the Austrian government of East Galicia, is a large and opulent city, situate on the river Peltew, which soon after falls into the Bug. It is the see of a Roman Catholic archbishop, and also of a Greek and an Armenian bishop. The squares and public buildings are magnificent; and the houses in general are well built. The principal streets are broad and spacious, intersected by many narrow lanes. This city is defended by two strong castles, has a noble cathedral, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants.

2. *Brody*, though now under the government of Russia, deserves here to be noticed as a large and commercial town, with a fortified castle, and nearly 20,000 inhabitants, one-third of whom are Jews.

3. *Lublin* contains several fine churches and convents, and is strongly fortified, being defended by a strong castle, founded upon a high rock. The houses are mostly well built, and form spacious streets; and the inhabitants, who are about 15,000 in number, carry on a considerable trade in cloth, corn, and Hungarian wines. Three annual fairs are held here, which last one month each, and are frequented by Russian, Turkish, Greek, and Armenian merchants.

4. *Jaroslaw*, situated upon one of the principal branches of the Vistula, is a handsome town, remarkable for its fine buildings and spacious streets. Here is a great annual fair, which lasts for six weeks, and is much resorted to.

The chief places of West Galicia are,

1. *Cracow*, the seat of the Austrian government of West Galicia, and anciently the capital of the kingdom of Poland. It is situated on the Vistula, which is here broad and shallow. The city and suburbs are of great extent, but do not now contain more than 20,000 inhabitants. The great square is spacious and well-built; and the houses were once well furnished and inhabited; but now they are either untenable or in a state of decay, and almost every building bears marks of ruined grandeur. It is the see of a bishop, and has a university, which is greatly decayed. Here is a magnificent cathedral, in which the

* The whole of this territory, together with part of several others, including a considerable extent of country situated to the east of the rivers Bug and Dniester, have been given to Russia by the treaty of Vienna in 1809, for the friendly services rendered by Alexander to the French emperor in the late rupture with Austria.

kings of Poland were crowned for upwards of five centuries; and here the principal Polish monarchs lie interred. Here is likewise an ancient and strongly fortified castle, which was the residence of those sovereigns before they removed their court to Warsaw.

2. *Sendomir*, situated on an eminence near the Vistula, is another considerable town of West Gallicia. It is well fortified both by nature and art; and its delightful situation rendered it the favourite residence of Casimir the Great and other kings of Poland.

TRANSYLVANIA.

This country is situated between 22 and 26 degrees of east longitude, and 45 and 48 degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Gallicia; on the east by Moldavia and Wallachia; on the south by Wallachia; and on the west by Hungary. Its length is about 180, and its width about 120 miles. It is surrounded on all sides by high mountains, and abounds in all the necessaries of life. The government of this province still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes, who are little more than nominally subject to the emperor of Austria, and to whose revenue they add but little. All sorts of provisions are very cheap and excellent in their kinds. The diet, or ancient parliament of this province meets by summons, and receives the commands of the emperor, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have the privilege of remonstrance and representation in case of grievance. This province is a part of the ancient Dacia, which for so long a period engaged the Roman arms before it was subdued. It was overrun by the Goths in the decline of the Roman power, and afterwards by the Huns, and continued in a very unsettled state till, in 1699, by the treaty of Carlovitz, Transylvania, Croatia, &c. became subject to the house of Austria. The chief towns are,

1. *Hermanstadt*, the capital, and seat of the government, is situated on the river Szebenny, which soon afterwards joins the Alanta, nearly 500 miles S.E. of Vienna. It is the see of a bishop, and has a fine Gothic cathedral. The houses are indifferently built; and the streets, though irregular, are tolerably spacious: but the situation being unwholesome tends greatly to thin the population, which, however, has been recently estimated at 17,000 souls.

2. *Clausenberg*, or *Colosvar*, an ancient city, on the river Lamos, where sometimes the states assemble. It is a small, neat, and handsome town, well fortified, and surrounded with high walls.

on one of the gates belonging to which is an inscription in honour of the Emperor Trajan.

THE BUCKOVINA.

This province formerly composed a part of Transylvania, but was for a length of time in the possession of the Turks, and annexed to Moldavia. It was ceded to Austria in 1771. It is about 90 miles long, and 50 broad. The country is full of woods, and produces but little grain; the inhabitants chiefly depending for support upon the cattle they rear, and the wax and honey afforded them by their bees. The inhabitants are a mixture of Wallachians, Germans, Hungarians, Armenians, Jews, and a great number of Gypsies. Their language is the Wallachian; but, owing to the erection of public schools, the German becomes every day more prevalent. This province is united with the government of East Gallicia. The chief place is

Tzernovitz, a small city, the see of a Greek archbishop, seated on the river Prath. It is a neat and well-built place, and contains about 6000 inhabitants.

SCLAVONIA.

This province is situated between 45 and 47 degrees of north latitude, and 17 and 21 degrees east longitude. It is about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and bounded by the river Drave on the north, by the Danube on the east, by the Save on the south, and by the duchy of Stiria on the west. The air is good, the country for the most part level, and not much encumbered with woods and mountains, but exceedingly well-watered by those noble rivers just mentioned; from whence we may conclude it to be a very fruitful country. It is divided into six counties; but the bounds of the respective divisions have been so frequently altered, as being a frontier between Turkey and Austria, that it is impossible to lay them down exactly. The country is fertile, and the inhabitants chiefly devote themselves to agriculture. In 1746 Sclavonia was added to Hungary; and the states send representatives to the diet of Hungary. The chief towns are,

1. *Posega*, the capital of the whole province, and of the division which is called the Bannat, situated on the Oriana, 120 miles west of Belgrade. It consists of about 1000 well-built houses, with 8000 inhabitants, and is a place of good trade.

2. *Walpo*, a neat town, seated on a river of the same name, 33 miles west of Posega. It contains nothing worthy of particular description.

3. *Esseck*, a trading town, situate on the river Drave,

Drave, 80 miles N.W. of Belgrade, is famous for its wooden bridge, 8865 geometrical paces in length, and 15 in breadth, over the marshes that lie between the Drave and the Danube. This is a great thoroughfare between Hungary and Turkey, which renders its traffic very considerable.

4. *Peterwarden*, by some reckoned the capital of this province, is situated on the Danube, 36 miles N.W. of Belgrade. It is a large town, and carries on a considerable trade, but is chiefly famous for the signal victory obtained near it over the Turks by Prince Eugene, in 1716. Its population is estimated at 8000 souls.

CROATIA

Lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It reaches from the river Drave to the Adriatic, turning eastward on Slavonia and Bothnia, and westward on Stiria and Carniola. It is 80 miles in length, and about 70 broad. The country is naturally fruitful, producing plenty of corn, wine, and oil, where it is cultivated; but being a frontier against the Turks, it has not yielded much more than would supply the necessities of the inhabitants of late years. The people are of a good stature; and, in their manners, customs, language, government, and laws, are modelled exactly like the Slavonians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as such are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours; and various other designations. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field.

The Croats derive their origin from the Sclavi, who were the first inhabitants of Slavonia, and anciently had kings of their own, who were styled kings of Croatia, and tributary to the emperor of the east. In the 11th century, Croatia devolved to the king of Hungary, and the Croats have continued ever since under the dominion of that monarchy, though not without frequent attempts to recover their independency. The chief towns are,

1. *Carlstadt*, or *Carlowitz*, the capital of Croatia, situated on the river Culp, 20 miles southward of the Save; and, being a frontier-town, is tolerably well fortified; but the houses are low, and the town is not handsome. Its trade is considerable.

2. *Zagrab*, or *Agram*, situated upon the river Save, a neat town, and the seat of the government of the province. The houses are well built, and the streets broad and spacious.

DALMATIA.

This extensive country is chiefly situated along the shores of the Adriatic sea, the more northern part of which is generally termed Hungarian Dalmatia; that towards the south is styled Venetian Dalmatia; and the most southern is recognised as Turkish Dalmatia: but nearly the whole of the maritime parts are at present in the possession of the French, who have taken possession of Cattaro, and overturned the ancient republic of Ragusa. Their primary object in these measures is, no doubt, to exclude the English from the benefit of trading with those countries; but a secondary idea is the subjugation of Turkey, which to all human appearance must soon fall an easy prey to the ambitious views of the emperors of France and Russia. In the middle ages the chief possessors were the Venetians; and at present the territories belong chiefly to Austria, though the French, of course, from the late arrangements with respect to Venice, have entered all the towns which belonged to that celebrated city. The Austrian government acquired these valuable territories, with the grand maritime city of Venice, by the treaty of Luneville in 1801; but, from an unaccountable imbecility treated Venice and her possessions (which in any other hands would have been equal in value to the lost Netherlands) with such contempt and neglect, by a fatal routine in favour of the old Austrian port of Trieste, that it is not surprising the French should endeavour to avail themselves of such an apathy; and, by the treaty of Presburg in 1805, it was for ever added to the kingdom of Italy. The whole of this country is mountainous, but fruitful.

Dalmatia is full of little castles and forts in the old style. The inhabitants are not only bold, but often skilful mariners, and are rather to be ruled by mildness than severity. They are attached to their chiefs and their privileges; and Venice secured their fidelity by moderate taxation, and plentiful supplies of provisions, for the country is generally barren. They all profess the Greek religion, but with several remains of Pagan superstition. The Morlachians, and other inland tribes of Dalmatia, are honest and sincere barbarians; and the dress of their *vaivods* somewhat resembles the Hungarian. The chief towns are,

1. *Zara*, the ancient *Jadera*, one of the strongest places in Dalmatia, being situated on a small peninsula, surrounded by the sea, except on the east, where it is joined to the continent by an isthmus only 25 paces in breadth, where there is a draw-bridge and fortress. There is also a citadel, with a deep ditch cut in the rock: the circumference

cumference of the walls is nearly two miles. The port is spacious and well defended; but there being a deficiency of water, the rain is preserved in cisterns. This place was formerly the residence of the governor of Dalmatia; and has been an archbishopric since 1154. It has many remains of Roman antiquity. Zara is chiefly noted in commerce for maraschino, the most celebrated of all liqueurs, which is distilled from the kernels of a kind of cherry. The inhabitants are about 6000.

2. *Spalatro*, a very ancient town of the late Venetian Dalmatia. It is well fortified, but commanded by adjacent hills. It is the seat of an archbishopric, and a mart of the Levant trade, with a large haven, and a lazaretto. The ruins of the palace of Dioclesian are grand and extensive, of which the late Mr. Adam published a splendid account, enriched with 71 folio plates. In 1784 the town was nearly depopulated by the plague; but it has revived, and the inhabitants are now estimated at 6000.

3. *Ragusa*, an ancient and interesting city, famous for being the seat of a republic, whose territory contained about 270 square miles, and 80,000 inhabitants. But this, like most of the petty states on the continent, has been obliged to submit to the all-grasping power of France, whose troops are now in possession of the city. Ragusa is pretty well built, and is surrounded by a wall full two miles in circuit, with an inaccessible mountain on the land side, and on the side of the sea a strong fort. It is distinguished by the fineness of its manufactures; and the citizens are all traders. During the time of its being a republic, it was governed by a doge, elected by ballot, like that of Venice, who continued in office only a month. During his administration he lived in the palace, a splendid edifice, and wore a ducal habit. This city contains some handsome churches and other public edifices. The inhabitants do not exceed 7000.

4. *Cattaro*. This town, together with a considerable territory, is divided from the rest of Dalmatia, by the republic of Ragusa just alluded to. The town is but small, and irregularly built; but it is considered the key of Turkey in this quarter. It is surrounded with mountains, which almost exclude the view of the sun. It is tolerably fortified, with a strong castle on an eminence; and has been subject to the Venetians since 1418. In 1806 it was disputed by the Russians and French: the latter are now the possessors of it.

The provinces of Croatia, Slavonia, and Hungarian Dalmatia, are under the government of a viceroy appointed by the emperor of Austria. Venetian Dalmatia and Istria, which are now in

the possession of the French, are governed by prefects, in the same manner as the departments of France.

ISTRIA.

This country is peninsular, lying on the north side of the Adriatic, by which it is in a manner surrounded, except towards the north, where it is joined to Carniola. It was anciently a part of Illyrium, and was conquered by the Romans between the first and second Punic wars. In the middle ages it was overrun by the barbarous tribes that overwhelmed civilized Europe, until the year 1190, when the Venetians made themselves masters of it, though not without a struggle with Austria; to which latter power it was ceded, together with Venice, in 1801. At present it is in the possession of the French, and is governed by a prefect. The face of the country is hilly, and the air unhealthy, especially near the sea; but the soil is fertile, producing abundance of corn, wine, and oil. There are also quarries of fine marble. The chief places are,

1. *Capo d'Istria*, a large and populous city, situated on the bay of Triest, having a fine harbour and extensive commerce. The houses are tolerably built, and the streets wide and regular. Here are a number of churches and convents.

2. *Rovigno*, a neat town, with an excellent harbour. The whole is handsomely built with free stone, large quarries of which abound in the vicinity of the town. The neighbouring villages are famous for producing excellent wines.

3. *Osera*, or *Osara*, a considerable town, with a great fishery abounding in sardines and mackerel. It is joined to the town of Cherso on the north by a fine bridge; and the whole is said to contain a population of 7000 persons.

4. *Pola*, an ancient city, formerly the capital of this country. It appears to have been a splendid place, as there still exist the ruins of an immense Roman amphitheatre and triumphal arch. The town, however, at present scarcely contains 1000 souls.

SECTION II.

Climate and Seasons—Face of the Country—Soil and Agriculture—Rivers—Lakes—Mountains—Forests—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Antiquities—Curiosities—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants—Their Manufactures and Commerce—Religion—Language—Army—Revenues—Laws, Government—History, &c. &c.

Climate and Seasons.—The climate of Austria Proper is commonly mild and salubrious, though sometimes exposed to violent winds, and the southern provinces in general enjoy a delightful temperature,

temperature, except the mountainous parts, which are exposed to the severities of alpine winter. The more northern regions of Bohemia and Moravia likewise boast the maturity of the grape, and of gentle and favourable weather. The numerous lakes and morasses of Hungary, and the prodigious plains resembling deserts, are supposed to render the air damp and unwholesome, the cold of the night rivalling the heat of the day; but the keen blasts from the Carpathian mountains seem in some measure to remedy these evils, the inhabitants being remarkable for health and vigour.

Face of the Country.—The appearance of the various regions subject to Austria is rather mountainous than level, presenting a striking contrast in this respect to those of Russia and Prussia. Commencing at Bregentz, on the lake of Constance, chains of mountains, and the Rætian alps, and glaciers of Tyrol, branch out on the south and north of Carinthia and Carniola. Another chain pervades Dalmatia; and, on ascending towards the north, Stiria displays chains of considerable elevation. The southern limit of Austria Proper is marked by other heights; and Bohemia and Moravia are almost encircled by various mountains, which on the east join the vast Carpathian chain, which winds along the north and east of Hungary and Transylvania, divided from each other by another elevated ridge. The dismembered provinces of Poland, though they partake in the south of the Carpathian heights, yet afford the widest plains to be found within the limits of the Austrian power.

This ample extent of country is also diversified by many noble rivers, particularly the majestic Danube, and its tributary stream the Tiess, which flows through the centre of Hungary; and there is scarcely a district which is not artificially irrigated. The general face of the Austrian dominions may, therefore, be pronounced to be highly variegated and interesting, producing all the vegetable products of the north and south of Europe.

Soil and Agriculture.—The soil is, upon the whole, extremely fertile. About the year 1770, Mr. Marshall, an accurate observer, found that Bohemia had suffered considerably by the ravages of war; the wheat was, however, tolerable, but the barley full of weeds, and exposed by negligence to the inroads of the cattle, who are fed in winter with the cabbage-turnip, and the red cabbage, both cultivated in large quantities. The flax seemed particularly to flourish; but the industry of the citizens, farmers, and peasants, was crushed by the overweening pride of the nobility, and the state of the peasantry was little superior to that of Poland. Hops were cultivated

in the warm spots of Bohemia, which with the barley formed excellent beer, a chief export of the country. In Moravia the agriculture seemed rather superior, being improved by Flemish farmers. That of Austria was good, except that enclosures were wanting. The greater part of Hungary he regarded as a fertile pasturage for sheep; and Flemish manufacturers were employed to improve the wool. Oats were little cultivated in Austria Proper; the other products as usual in England, particularly abundance of cabbages and potatoes; but the cultivation was not neat, small waste spots being left by the plough, which harboured weeds, to the great detriment of the field. The vineyards and fields of saffron were numerous; cattle appeared in abundance, and large herds of swine, the latter feeding all the summer in the woods. At a more recent period, Mr. Coxe gives a deplorable picture of the want of cultivation in the southern provinces of Poland, now subject to Austria, the country being generally overspread with vast tracts of thick gloomy forests; and even from Cracow to Warsaw, a course of about 258 English miles, he only met with two carriages and about a dozen carts. The country was generally sandy or marshy, and quite devoid of marks of industry: the peasants were the most miserable and abject that he had ever seen, and would assemble in crowds to implore charity. Such being the case, Austria cannot have made any great acquisition in her Polish provinces; and Prussia has in fact the chief reason to boast of the partition.

Rivers.—Of the rivers which pervade the Austrian dominions, the Danube is the principal. This magnificent stream rises in Swabia, and, after watering Swabia, Bavaria, Austria Proper, Hungary, and Turkey in Europe, it joins the Euxine or Black Sea, after a comparative circuit of about 1300 British miles, about one half of its progress being through the territories of Austria. It begins to be navigable for boats at Ulm; after which it receives several large rivers, as it passes along, and is so deep between Buda and Belgrade, that the Turks and their enemies have had men of war on it; yet there are cataracts both above and below Buda, which prevent its navigation in those parts.

The river next in consequence to the Danube is the Tiess, which arising from the Carpathian mountains, towards Buckovina, and bending towards the west, receives many tributary streams from that Alpine chain; and afterwards turning to the south, falls into the Danube, not far to the west of Belgrade, after a course of about 420 miles. At Belgrade the Danube receives the Sau, or Save, which forms a boundary between Austria

Austria and Turkey, rising not far from Idria, in the mountains of Carniola, and pursuing a course nearly equal in length to that of the Tiess. The Drau, or Drave, extends to about 350 miles from its source in the eastern mountains of Tyrol, till it joins the Danube below Esseck.

The Inn rises in the east of Switzerland, from the mountains of Maloggia in the Grisons, being a point of partition dividing the waters which run towards the Black Sea from those which flow into the Adriatic. This famous river is more gentle near its source than the other Alpine streams, but soon becomes more precipitous, and joins the Danube at Passau with a vast weight of water, after a course of about 250 miles, being nearly equal to that of the Danube itself at their junction.

The Raab and the Leytha, which are intermediate streams between the Drave and the Inn, scarcely deserve mention. The Mulda is a considerable river, which rises in the southern mountains of Bohemia, and, after running about 50 miles south-east, bends due north, and joins the Elbe near Melnick, after passing through Prague. The Elbe arises in the Sudetic mountains between Bohemia and Silesia, and waters a great part of the former kingdom before it enters Saxony, bending its course north-west towards the German Ocean. The Morau, whence Moravia derives its name, also arises in the Sudetic mountains, and, passing by Olmutz, joins the Danube not far to the west of Presburg.

The principal Gallician streams are the Vistula and the Dniester, of which a description has been already given in our view of Prussia; to which we may add the Bug, which divides Galicia from Lithuania or Russian Poland, and is afterwards the boundary between Galicia and the duchy of Warsaw, in which latter country it falls into the Vistula.

Lakes.—The lakes in the Austrian dominions are numerous, and some of them of considerable size. Bohemia presents a few small pieces of water, towards its southern boundary; but on entering Austria Proper, the lake of Traun, the Ebernsee, and others, are of greater extent. Carinthia contains a large central lake not far from Clagenfurt; and Carniola another, the Cirknitz See. Hungary contains many morasses and lakes; the most important of the latter being that of Platte, or the Platten See, extending about 45 British miles in length, by eight in breadth, and abounding with fish. The Neusidler lake, about 30 miles south-east of Vienna, is about 13 miles in length by four in breadth. It is almost surrounded by fens, and is chiefly remarkable for being in the vicinity of Eisenstadt, the residence of the family of Esterhazy. On the east of the

Tiess is the lake of Palitzer, about eight miles in length. Galicia abounds with numerous small lakes; but none of them merit a particular description. In Transylvania is the Tsege-To; and many small lakes are situated amidst the Carpathian mountains.

Mountains.—Of the various elevated chains which border upon or diversify the Austrian territories, the Rhetian or Tyrolese Alps claim the first attention. These chiefly proceed in a direction from the south-west to the north-west, or from the Valteline to the archbishopric of Salzburg. This, Saussure has observed, is the general course of the Alpine chains. The Brenner mountains, which is the modern name of the Rhetian Alps, rival the grand Alps of Switzerland in numerous glaciers, and, like other grand chains, present exterior barriers; that on the north being distinguished by the name of Spitz, while that on the south is termed Vedretta. On leaving Italy, there is almost a gradual ascent, from Trent to the highest summit. The primitive or greatest elevations arise to the north of Sterzing, whence streams proceed towards the river Inn on the north and the Adige on the south, and the Eisac descends, a precipitous torrent, amidst masses of granite, petrosilex, and marble; and the avalanches, or falling masses of ice and snow often become dangerous to travellers. "The naked and rugged peaks of the mounts Lorenzen, Fartschel, and Tschafatfeh, raise their towering heads towards the north-west; and on the south-east are those of Glander, Schloss, Pragls, and Pallanser. Their summits are entirely bare, and seem to be composed of granite." The glacier most easy of access is that of Stuben, the centre of which produces many Alpine plants; and the granite and porphyry are frequently covered with calcareous stone. The glacier of Stuben is 4692 feet above the level of the sea, and presents the usual phenomena of such scenes, with beautiful pyramids of azure, which in sunshine reflect a blaze of light. The mountain called Brenner is, according to Beaumont, only 5109 feet above the sea. The town of Stennach is nearly in the centre of the Tyrolese chain: towards the east, from the midst of a long course of glaciers running north-east and south-west, rises the grand mountain Gefron, a mass of granite always covered with snow, and one of the highest peaks of the Rhetian Alps: on the west is Habichspiz, of smaller height; but to the south-west is Tributaan, another stupendous peak of the great Brenner chain. The Bock-kogo is another vast peak, rising little inferior to Gefron, and in the same latitude, but towards the west.

Towards the west and north of Inspruck are several

several detached mountains, covered with constant snow, among which those of Verner* are the most remarkable. Near the glaciers are found rock crystals of various colours, vulgarly called rubies, emeralds, &c.; and the inferior ranges of the Tyrolese mountains contain mines of silver, copper, lead, mercury, iron, alum, and sulphur. In the vale of Zill is a mine of gold, which, however, barely defrays the expence and labour. Towards the south the mountains are rich in wood and pasturage; but the northern hills are bleak and barren. The inferior mountains are calcareous, or argillaceous; but those of Verner are granitic. The Tyrolese Alps are seldom visited by travellers.

The provinces of Carinthia and Carniola present many considerable chains of mountains: as that of Lobel, which separates these countries; and the Julian or Carnic Alps, now called Birnbaumar Wald, which divide Carinthia from Italy. Carniola is chiefly mountainous, and many of the summits are covered with lasting snow; the most remarkable are the Kalenburg near the river Save, the Runberg, and the Karst to the south of Idria. Here also terminates the vast chain which proceeds by the north of Dalmatia towards the Hæmus, and is known by many local appellations, as Mount Promina near Gnin, Mount Prologh, Mount Clobu, &c. &c. but better distinguished by the title of the Dalmatian chain. The latter mountains are chiefly calcareous. All these mountains have been defended by forts.

Towards the north first occurs the chain of Bacher, in the south of Stiria; mount Grasin on the east of Judenburg; and the chief mountains in this province, those of Grimin, in its western extremity towards Salzburg. On the east towards Hungary this country is more plain and fertile.

Austria Proper, or rather the western part of this province, contains many considerable mountains, the highest of which is in the maps called Priel. Towards the north Austria is divided from Bohemia by a ridge of considerable elevation, which passes to the north-east of Bavaria. On the north-west Bohemia is parted from Saxony by a chain of metallic mountains called the Erzgebirg. On the west of the river Eger, near its junction with the Elbe, stands the mountainous group of Milessou. The Donnerberg, near Milessou, is regarded as the highest mountain in Bohemia; it is free from snow in summer, and probably not above 6000 feet high. (Riesbeck, ii. 149.) On the north-east, the Sudetic chain, which branches from the Carpathian, divides

Bohemia and Moravia from Silesia and the duchy of Warsaw.

The Carpathian mountains, that grand and extensive chain which bounds Hungary on the north and east, so celebrated from antiquity, are by the Germans styled the mountains of Krapak; the Hungarians call them Tatro. This enormous ridge extends in a semi-circular form, from the mountain of Javornik, south of Silesia, towards the north-west; but at the mountain of Trojaska, the most northern summit, it bends to the south-east, to the confines of the Buckovina, where it sends forth two branches, one to the east, another to the west of Transylvania; which is also divided from Wallachia by a branch running south-west and north-east. The whole circuit is about 500 miles. Dr. Townson visited these Hungarian Alps from the vicinity of Kesmark, first proceeding to the Green See, a lake amidst the mountains, passing through forests of firs, which were succeeded by rocks of limestone and granite. The Krumholz, a kind of tree resembling the pine, but feathered with thick branches to the very ground, somewhat impeded the progress. He computes that the Kesmark peak, which towards Hungary is a perpendicular rock, may be about 8508 feet above the level of the sea. He afterwards proceeded to the Lomnitz peak, which he says is the highest of the whole Carpathian chain, and placed towards its centre: yet he expresses some doubt whether it be not rivalled, if not exceeded, by the Krivan, situated more towards the west, 20 degrees 45 minutes of east longitude from London. The summit of Lomnitz he reached, and computed it to be 8640 feet above the level of the sea, not much above half the height of the famous Mont Blanc, or Rosa. He found it composed of grey granite, like the rocks at the bottom, but with a small mixture of a greenish black earthy substance; yet the vegetation consisted of little except a few lichens. These peaks are seldom visited except by the hunters of the chamois. He afterwards ascended the Krivan with more ease, but found it inferior in height to the Lomnitz, being 8343 feet above the sea.

The Carpathian ridge occasionally branches towards the north and south. In the former direction the most remarkable are the hills on the west of Silesia; those which adjoin the salt mines of Wieliczka, a few miles south-east from Cracow, in Poland; and those which extend through part of the Buckovina. Towards the south a branch stretches from the centre of the chain towards Tokay; and there are other branches not accu-

* Beaumont, in his account of the Rhatian Alps, says, the Brenner, or burning hill, is so called on account of the frequent thunder-storms. The Glockner and Ortel are computed at 11,500-feet. In the archbishopric of Salzburg the Hoch-horn is stated to be 10,663.

rately defined, which descend in the same direction from the eastern circuit. Among the detached mountains of Hungary are those of Matra, in the centre of the kingdom, about 50 miles north-east of Buda; those of Fatra, north-east of Cremnitz; of Avas, in the district of Marmaros; and of Farkas, to the south of Nemethi. The mountains of Transylvania are numerous, besides the two branches of the Carpathian chain, which may be regarded as inclosing the country; the Bannat of Temeswar also has many ridges of considerable height.

Forests.—In the Austrian dominions numerous and extensive forests arise in every direction, particularly along the Carpathian mountains, and in the provinces of Galicia. Bohemia was formerly remarkable for a forest of great extent, which reached from the Rhine to Sarmatia, and from Cologne to Poland. The *Gabreta Sylva* was on the south-west of the same country, where a chain of hills now divides it from Bavaria. To enter into a description of these different forests, would greatly exceed the limits of our work.

Animals.—The domestic animals in the Austrian dominions are excellent, particularly the cattle. Dr. Townson says, the Hungarian horses have been erroneously estimated from the spirited cavalry supplied by other regions, while the native breed is very small, and the stallions and brood mares are foreign. Many of the native horses run wild, and are sold in great numbers at the fairs, before they have suffered any subjection. The breed of cattle is mostly of a singular colour, a slaty blue; and the Hungarian sheep resemble the Wallachian in their long erect spiral horns, and pendent hairy fleece. In the western parts of the Austrian sovereignty the animals do not seem to be distinguished from those of other parts of Germany.

The large breed of wild cattle, called *urus*, or *bison*, is said to be found in the Carpathian forests, as well as in those of Lithuania and Caucasus. Of the ferocious or wild quadrupeds, are the bear, the boar, the wolf, the chamois, the marmot, and the beaver. Among the larger birds, the bustard and pelican are some of the most uncommon. Austria, indeed, has some birds rather peculiar, as four uncommon kinds of the falcon, the *strix subaurita*, the *motacilla dumetorum*, the *parus pendulinus*, the *pratincola krameria*, and others. The Danube also contains some fishes seldom found in other rivers, among which is a small and delicate sort of salmon. Dr. Townson has given a minute description of the entomology of Austria.

Vegetables.—Among the vegetable productions of this extensive empire, are all kinds of grain, flax, hemp, hops, saffron, tobacco, and fine

fruits. The vine flourishes nearly throughout the whole of these dominions; but the most esteemed wine is produced at Tokay, in Hungary, which is reckoned, in some diseases, to be more efficacious than any medicine. The forests abound with almost every species of trees; but the timber, in general, is not reckoned so good as in the more northern countries of Europe.

The botany of Austria Proper has been carefully illustrated by Jacquin, and that of Carniola by Scopoli and Harquet; the flora of Hungary is still very imperfect; and the acquisitions in Poland by the last and former partitions are, as yet, in a manner unknown to natural history. The general mild temperature of the Austrian states, their variety of soil and situation, from the lakes and rich levels of Hungary, to the snowy summits of Istria and Carinthia, are a sufficient evidence that they abound in flowers of all European descriptions.

Minerals, &c.—The mineralogy of the Austrian dominions is by far the most various and interesting of any in Europe. There is scarcely a province of this extensive territory, from the frontiers of Switzerland to those of Turkey, which cannot boast of advantages in the mineral kingdom; and even the Austrian acquisitions in Poland contain one of the most remarkable mines in Europe, the saline excavations of Wieliczka. The mines of Bohemia have been celebrated for ages. Silver is found at Kuttenberg, and at Joachimsthal, on the western frontier towards Saxony, probably a continuation of the veins of that country. This mine was discovered in 1516, and next were struck from it the crowns of Joachim. Other places of this province also produce this valuable metal; and gold has been discovered at Keonstock. One of the most singular products of this province is tin, which is found at Zinwald (that is, the tin forest), also on the frontier of Saxony, near Krauppen, at Schlackenwald, or Slauka, a few miles to the north of Carlsbad, and at Lauterbach and Schoenfeld in the same district; so that this metal is restricted to the western part of Bohemia; where is also found, at Dreyhacken, a mine of very pure copper. Lead is found at Bleystadt, or Pleystadt, in the same quarter; and Buschin reckons quicksilver among the products of Bohemia, along with iron, magnet, alum, sulphur, vitriol, terra sigillata, talc, and coal.

The garnets of Bohemia are among the most beautiful of the kind. They are chiefly found in clay, mingled with mica, at Meronitz, in the mountain of Stiefelberg, whence they are carried to Bilen. There are other mines of garnets in the same region, on the west of the highway leading from Prague to Dresden, where they are found.

found with balls of basalt formed of concentric layers, and some jacinths and chrysolites. The women wash the clay in which the garnets are found, after which they are sifted, and arranged according to size; and sold by the pound weight from about three to ten shillings. The making of them into necklaces is a branch of commerce of great antiquity at Carlsbad, and at Walkirk in Swabia, where 28 mills are occupied in this article only.

Moravia also produces not only iron in great abundance, but alum, sulphur and saltpetre. Gold was formerly found in the district of Znoyn or Zuam, and silver was lately worked in that of Iglau, both on the confines of Austria.

The southern provinces of Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola afford many important minerals. The iron of Stiria supplies the finest steel, and great quantities of it are imported into England; it is chiefly found at Eisenerst and Vorderberg, the former in the district of Ensthal, so called from the river Ens, were discovered in the year 1712, and the others are in the same quarter. There are considerable lead mines near Pegau, on the river Mohar, yielding about 5000 tons yearly; and at Zeyring were silver mines under water since the year 1158. Stiria also affords coal at different places.

The duchy of Carinthia also yields excellent iron; the mines of Friesach, on the north, being particularly famous, as well as those near the sources of the Lyser. In the neighbourhood of Villach, at Bleyberg, are found rich lead mines; and the same place supplies what is called fire-marble, or lumachelli. Carniola abounds with immense caves and other natural curiosities; but, except a few iron works, the mineralogy is little remarkable. On the west, towards the county of Gorz, which produces excellent wines, lies the Ban of Idria, a district immediately subject to the chamber of Inner Austria at Gratz. The quicksilver mines of Idria are celebrated. They were discovered in the year 1499; and the hill of Vogelberg has annually yielded more than 300,000 pounds weight of mercury. The common ore is ciunabar; but sometimes the pure quicksilver runs through the crevices. Idria is surrounded with woody hills; and the Vogelberg, on the east, produces oaks and broom, while the interior consists of red clay, calcareous rock, and a black soft slate, which covers the metallic vein in the southern direction. The descent is by ladders and stairs of stone; and the length of the galleries is computed at 316 paces, or 1580 feet. The working in these vast mercurial caverns is pernicious to the health, and is sometimes allotted as a punishment to criminals.

The principal mines in the Austrian dominions

are situated in the eastern provinces of Hungary and Transylvania. About forty miles to the south of the Carpathian hills are the gold mines of Cremnitz, and twenty English miles farther to the south the silver mines of Shemnitz; cities which have arisen solely from these labours, and thence called mining towns. Shemnitz is esteemed the principal. Hungary contains mines of copper at Shemnitz and Herrengrund; some of antimony at Rosenau; and in different parts, of coal, salt, and alum: saltpetre is also produced in considerable quantities; and natron, or soda, is found in a lake near Kismaria, towards the frontier of Transylvania. These lakes are commonly white, from the soda floating on the surface. But a mineral peculiar to Hungary, and, as yet, discovered in no other region of the globe, is the opal, a gem preferred to all others by the oriental nations. The opal mines are situated at Gzerweniza, a day's journey to the north of Kaschaw, and nearly under the same latitude with Cremnitz. The hill in which they are found consists of decomposed porphyry; and they only occur at the distance of a few fathoms from the surface, of various qualities, from the opaque white, or semi-opal, which is also discovered in Cornwall, in England, to the utmost effulgence of iridescent colours which distinguishes this noble gem.

The mines of Transylvania and the Bannat are also numerous and valuable. Those of Najiag, twelve British miles to the north-east of Deva, were pretended to be discovered by a peasant, who said that he had observed a light shining in the evening over the spot. They produce the grey gold ore, being that precious metal mingled with antimony, arsenic, lead, iron, and sometimes with manganese and zinc. They are the richest in all Transylvania, and conducted with the greatest care and exactness. At Ofenbanya, about 25 British miles to the north of Karlsburg, is found the white gold ore, which also occurs in the hills of Fatzebay, in the same quarter. At Ohlapien, not far from Zalathna, is found the finest gold in Transylvania, mingled with gravel and sand.

The celebrated salt mines of Gallicia are situated at Wieliczka, eight miles to the south of Cracow, being excavated at the northern extremity of a branch of the Carpathian mountains. The descent is by pits of great depth; and the galleries and chambers are of immense size, commonly supported by timber, or by vast pillars of salt, out of which materials even subterranean chapels are formed: but, according to Coxe and Townson, travellers have idly exaggerated the splendour and extent of the saline apartments. The miners work by intervals of eight hours

hours; after which they are drawn up, and their places supplied by others. The revenue arising from these mines was computed at near £100,000 sterling yearly; but it has considerably declined since they became subject to Austria. The salt is of an iron grey colour, sometimes intermingled with white cubes; and sometimes large blocks of salt appear imbedded in marl. The purest sort is found at the bottom of the mine, and is sparry. The mines extend about 3600 feet from east to west, and about 200 from south to north. The salt is of the same kind with that found in Marmaros, on the other side of the Carpathian chain, or, indeed, throughout Transylvania, which contains a great number of salt mines, though not of considerable extent. Besides these there are some mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-east of Cracow, from whence several species of earth are dug, which are excellently adapted for the potter's use, and supply all the country with earthenware.

The mineral waters in the Austrian dominions are very numerous, as is to be expected in a country so mountainous, with the exception of the great plain in the west of Hungary, extending upwards of 250 miles in every direction. It would be useless to specify every place at which they are to be found. They are of every possible quality.

Antiquities.—The ancient monuments of the more northern kingdoms and provinces belonging to Austria, are neither numerous nor important. In Vindobona, and the adjacent parts of Noricum and Pannonia, may occasionally be seen Roman remains; but the ruins of the celebrated bridge of Trajan, over the Danube, belong to Turkey in Europe, being situated not far from Wildin, in Bulgaria; it is supposed to have consisted of twenty arches, or rather vast piers of stones, originally supporting a wooden fabric of the length of more than 3300 English feet. In Hungary, and other parts of the ancient province of Dacia, appear many relics of Roman power, as military roads, ruins, &c.; and an elegant historian remarks, "that, if we except Bohemia, Moravia, the northern skirts of Austria, and a part of Hungary between the Teyss and the Danube, all the other dominions of the house of Austria were situate with the limits of the Roman empire." Hungary and the other provinces of the Austrian dominions, having been frequently exposed to the ravages of war, many ancient monuments have perished; yet several castles, churches, and monasteries, still attest the munificence of their founders. The cathedral church of St. Stephen, in Vienna, is a Gothic fabric of singular pomp, and minute decoration. We refer the reader who delights in the accounts

of ancient religious structures, to Dr. Brown's Travels.

Natural Curiosities.—Among these may be named the grand Alpine scenes of Tyrol, the glaciers and peaks of the Brenner. At Gannowitz, in Stiria, is a fountain whose waters are said to be warm in winter and cold in summer; a common error, the deception consisting in their preserving the same temperature. The calcareous hills of Carinthia afford many singular scenes; which are, however, exceeded by those of the Carnian Alps, or Birnbaumer mountains, of Carniola. In the latter country, near Aldsberg, Busching says there is a grotto of prodigious extent, displaying spaces sufficient for the erection of villages, and containing natural amphitheatres, bridges, &c. Near the entrance, the river Poig, which rises at about a mile distant, throws itself into the hollow of the rock, and passes under the grotto. The grotto of St. Mary Magdalen, in the same district, is remarkable for beautiful pillars; and that of Lueg for extent and the variety of stalactitic figures. Nor is that near St. Serf unworthy of notice. But the chief natural curiosity of Carniola is the lake of Cirknitz, called by Dr. Brown the Zirchnitzer See. That traveller informs us, that it is about two German, or more than eight English miles in length, by four of the latter in breadth. In the month of June the water descends under ground, through many apertures at the bottom; and in September it reascends with considerable force; thus yielding rich pasturage in summer, while in winter it abounds with fish. The calcareous hills and islands of Dalmatia contain similar curiosities; as the lake Jesero, in the isle of Cherso, which only diffuses its waters every fifth year; several curious caverns; and prodigious quantities of fossil bones, of horses, oxen, sheep, &c. but it is doubtful if any be human; nor have any decidedly such been discovered in any region of the globe. Austria, Bohemia, and Moravia, display few natural curiosities, excepting that near Trantenau is a most singular assemblage of natural towers of stone, from 60 to 150 feet in height. This stony forest is of great extent, and is by some supposed to be the skeleton of a hill. (Riesbeck, ii. 148.) The natural curiosities of Hungary are numerous, besides the Alpine scenes of the Carpathian mountains. There is a cavern of prodigious extent near Szadello, about 30 British miles N.W. of Caschau, which is described by Dr. Townson. It is situated, like most other caverns, in a hill of limestone, and includes within it different canals and passages, which are so crowded with pendent stalactites as to become a dangerous labyrinth. "It is so intricate," says Dr. Townson, "that I firmly

firmly believe if a man was once lost in it, though he had food and lights enough to last him a month, he would not be able to find his way out." This account is corroborated by Korabinsky, a late German writer, who relates that, some years ago, two members of the Royal Society of London, who were sent by the society to visit Hungary, after remaining in this cavern three days, could never get to the end of it, nor find an opening. Near Szalitze, in the same quarter, is another renowned cavern, which contains a small glacier. At Demanovo, about 16 British miles to the east of Rosenberg, is another remarkable cave, containing many bones of wild animals which have taken shelter there, and died, or been destroyed.

The principal natural curiosity of Gallicia is the salt-mines of Wielictzka, which have been already mentioned. They consist of wonderful caverns, several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of these are dug four different kinds of salts: one extremely hard, like crystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle: these are all brackish, but the fourth is somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines near the city of Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt water, and on the other one of fresh. The descent into these mines, together with their dimensions, &c. have been already described under the mineralogy of this empire.

The virtues of a spring in the vicinity of Cracow, which increases and decreases with the moon, are said to be wonderful for the preservation of life; and it is reported that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and some of them to 150 years of age. This spring is inflammable, and, by applying a torch to it, flames like the subtlest spirits of wine. The flame, however, dances on the surface, without heating the water; but though it may at first be easily extinguished, yet if neglected, it communicates itself, by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes. About 70 years ago the flames are said to have lasted three years before they could be entirely extinguished.

Manners and Customs.—The manners and customs of the numerous kingdoms and provinces subject to the house of Austria are various; and the streets of Vienna, the capital, present the greatest variety of inhabitants to be met with any where, as Greeks, Transylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their different dresses.

In Austria Proper the people are generally tall,

tolerably fair, and strong built. They live much at their ease; and the farmers, and even peasantry, are but little inferior to those of England. There is an abundance of provisions throughout the whole country, and a great variety of wines. The Austrians in their manners are cold, but civil; the women are well-shaped, and tolerably handsome, but devoid of mental accomplishments, the chief books they read being holy legends and idle romances. The use of rouge is general, but moderate; and the dress is singularly splendid. They retain the absurd fashion, universal on the continent, of dressing little girls like women, with the high-powdered head and the hoop. Their manners somewhat resemble the Italian and Spanish cicibeism, forming in this respect a kind of medium between the profligacy of the south of Europe and the decency of the north. The Austrian youth of rank are commonly ignorant, and of course haughty, being of uncultivated minds, and possessing none of that condescension of manners to be found among the superior ranks of some other countries, a circumstance more striking to the English traveller in particular, from the violence of the contrast. An Austrian nobleman or gentleman is seldom seen to read, and hence polite literature is almost unknown; nor are the Austrians entitled to any share in its progress in Germany. The lower order are little addicted to crimes or vices, and punishments are rare; robberies are seldom committed, and murder little known. When capital punishment becomes unavoidable, it is administered with great solemnity, and accompanied with public prayers, an example worthy of universal imitation.

Voltaire observes that the leaden temper of the Germans wants to be mended by mingling the French quicksilver with it. It has been alleged, that their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, especially the Italians, such as Montecuculi, and Prince Eugene, they have done great things both against the Turks and the French. The Imperial arms have seldom made any remarkable figure when commanded by German generals: but this possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two last wars the Austrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the whole German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not well known, especially in watch and clock-making, jewellery, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, some of

of which we shall have occasion to mention. They have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, owing to the vast plenty of their country in wine and provisions of every kind; but such excesses are now less common. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repast is commonly finished by coffee, after three or four public toasts have been given; but Dr. Render affirms that drinking of healths is now abolished, a fine being imposed on any person who does so: the forfeits are deposited in a box placed on the table for the benefit of the poor. Every one has his small or large bottle before him, and drinks as much or as little as he likes. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The Austrian nobility are men of much honour. All their sons inherit their father's titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. In the conjugal relations, the husbands are not quite so complaisant as those of some other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor, indeed, do they seem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are said to be fond of gaming. Many of these and the neighbouring German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high-sounding title, easily enter into their armies and those of other sovereigns. Their fondness for title is attended with many other inconveniences: the gentlemen of property think the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, below their attention, and that they should degrade themselves by being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

Their domestic diversions are nearly the same as in England: billiards, chess, cards, dice, fencing, dancing &c. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear-baiting. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tigers, swans, scallop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet, lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers, ribbands, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night-time, servants ride before the sledges with torches; and a gentle-

man, standing on the sledge behind, guides the horse.

Dr. Render observes, with respect to the mode of travelling, that some years ago it was very tedious and expensive, from the badness of the roads, and the want of due regulations enjoined on those who furnished horses and carriages to passengers. To obviate inconvenience and extortion from these people, he says a law was passed by the diet, at the suggestion of the emperor Joseph II., a wise and patriotic monarch, that a *chaussée*, resembling the turnpike roads in England, should extend throughout the whole German empire, which produced such improvement, that a traveller might go with ease seven or eight miles an hour.

The same author informs us, that the old and absurd custom of extravagance in funeral pomp, by which many families had greatly impaired their circumstances, is now almost abolished throughout the empire.

The next people in estimation, and the first in numbers in this empire are the Hungarians. They are a brave, generous, and hardy race of men. In their persons they are tall and well made; and the women are said to be handsomer than those of Austria. Their manners and customs were formerly peculiar to themselves; but in this respect they are now considerably tinctured by those of the Austrian and ruling Germans; yet they still remain a spirited people, and affect to despise their masters. Their dress is well known to be peculiar, and is copied by our hussars. This dress consists of a tight vest, mantle, and furred cap, and has a graceful appearance, while the whiskers add a military ferocity to their look. Their usual arms are the broad sword, and a kind of pole-axe, besides their fire-arms.

The dress of the ladies is generally of a sable hue, with sleeves straight to their arms; and their stays, fastened before with little gold, pearl, or diamond buttons, are well known to the French and English ladies. Both men and women in what they call the mining towns and districts, wear fur and even sheep-skin dresses. The inns upon the roads are most miserable hovels, and even those are seldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for the peasants, and the poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout and fever, on account of the unwholesomeness of the climate, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other strangers settled in their country; the flatness of the internal parts of which renders travelling commodious either by land or water. Their common diversions are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in war a brave

brave and magnanimous people; and they pride themselves on being descended from those heroes who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the Infidels. In other respects recent travellers do not seem to have discovered any great distinction between the Austrian and Hungarian manners.

The inhabitants of Bohemia and Moravia, in their persons, manners, and habits, resemble the Germans: but there is among them no middle class of society; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. The emperor Joseph II. generously released the peasantry on the royal demesnes from the state of vassalage in which they were so long and unjustly retained; and it certainly would be well if the Bohemian nobility could be induced to follow his example, so as no longer to deprive their vassals of the rights of human nature. Although these people are not remarkable for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid assertors of civil and religious liberty in Europe, as might easily be shewn from the noble defence they made in favour of the reformed religion when it was scarcely known in any other country.

Gallicia and Lodomeria having formerly composed a principal part of the kingdom of Poland, the inhabitants of course are nearly all of Polish extraction, and adopt the manners and customs of that greatly-injured people, of whom we shall present an account in our description of the duchy of Warsaw.

The inhabitants of Transylvania, Croatia, Dalmatia, &c. the descendants of the ancient Goths and Vandals, still retain their ancient military character. In their dress they resemble the Hungarians, from whom they differ but little in their manners and customs.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The trade of this widely extended empire is considerable, and the manufactures important. The chief branches of traffic conducted at Vienna consist chiefly in the fabrication of silk, gold and silver lace, cloths, stuffs, stockings, linen, mirrors, and porcelain; with silver plate, and several articles in brass. Austria Proper and the southern provinces produce abundance of horses and cattle; corn, flax, saffron, and various wines, with several metals, particularly the quicksilver from the mines of Idria. The common sort of this mineral is extracted from the ore by means of fire; but the virgin quicksilver is found in numerous small drops, or trickles through the veins of the mountains. Malefactors are condemned to these mines to work for life, as this kind of labour is the most unwholesome that can be; they never enjoy the light of the sun. Hoeck says, that in the archduchy of Austria there are seven great

manufactories of cotton cloth, which occupy 140,000 individuals; and at Lintz a woollen manufactory which employs 30,000.

Bohemia and Moravia are rich in oxen, sheep, corn, flax, and hemp, from the two last of which articles extensive linen manufactures have been established, which are very flourishing. A recent traveller says, that the linen manufactures of Bohemia employ above 300,000 persons, and the woollen 60,000. This country is also celebrated for the fabrication of beautiful glass and excellent paper, the exports of which are very considerable. The manufactures of Hungary are few, and but of small importance: there are some, however, of leather, fine linen, and different kinds of hardware. The exports consist of horses, cattle, swine (to a great amount annually), corn, wine, tobacco, the produce of the mines, raw and manufactured skins, hogs'-bristles, tallow, &c. In 1787 the exports of Hungary amounted to 17,800,000 florins, (equal to £1,800,000 sterling), and the imports to 13,800,000 florins, (£1,400,000 sterling), leaving a balance to the country of 4,000,000 florins, or £400,000 sterling.

The manufactures of Gallicia are not very considerable, and are confined to articles of immediate necessity. They are, however, greatly favoured by the Austrian government, and are increasing and improving. The commerce of this country is principally carried on by the Jews, Salt is the most important article of the exports, which consist besides of corn, tobacco, cattle, wool, skins, tallow, bristles, honey, and wax.

The Austrian territories in general are so abundant in the various necessities and luxuries of life, to be found either in the north or south of Europe, that the imports are few and inconsiderable, and her commerce is self-dependent. The chief exports are from the port of Trieste, consisting of quicksilver and other metals, with wines and other native products.

The people of the Austrian dominions seem to be little aware of the utility of inland navigation; in fact, the long navigable course of the Danube renders such navigation not so necessary as in other countries.

Religion.—Before the Reformation this country was entirely, in ecclesiastical matters, under the jurisdiction of the church of Rome, to which the reigning family of the house of Austria have always shewed a bigoted attachment. Hence in Austria Proper, Carinthia, Carniola, and Stiria, the Roman Catholic religion preponderates, but at present with a considerable degree of toleration, so that Lutherans, Calvinists, and other sects, not only worship God as they think proper, but are protected by the states. The Bohemians

Bohemians were the first nation on the continent who had an idea of reformation, and made so glorious a stand for many years against the errors of Rome, that they were at length indulged with many privileges not tolerated by the Romish church. This was, in a great measure, owing to the celebrated John Wickliffe, an Englishman, who was seconded in Bohemia by John Huss and Jerome of Prague, afterwards infamously burnt by the council of Constance. The Romish is, however, still the established religion of Bohemia; but its professors are exceeded in numbers by the Protestants. The ecclesiastical government consists of the archbishops of Prague and three suffragan bishops. The predominant and established religion of Hungary is also the Roman Catholic, under two archbishops and fifteen bishops, including Transylvania and Croatia; but the Protestants are said to be nearly as numerous a body. They have entire freedom of public worship, with churches and bells, and their own schools and seminaries of learning; and are admitted to fill all the public offices, and to a seat in the legislative councils.

In Galicia the established religion, since its annexation with Austria, is similar to that of the other provinces; but Lutherans, Calvinists, and Greeks, are all tolerated; and the Jews, who are very numerous, enjoy considerable privileges, as they also do in the rest of the Austrian states.

Language.—The languages spoken in these aggregated dominions are numerous and discrepant. They belong chiefly to three grand divisions: the Gothic or German of the ruling nation, which in process of time will gradually exclude the others; the Slavonic of the Poles, part of the Hungarians, the Dalmatians, &c. and also the ancient speech used in Bohemia and Moravia; and lastly, the Hungarian Proper, which has been considered as a branch of the Finnic tongue. Among people of rank at Vienna the French was formerly prevalent, as already mentioned; but this fashion is on the decline, and the use of the polished German of Saxony is becoming more general. Riesbeck observes that in Swabia, Bavaria, and Austria, the German is very impure. The language of Bohemia is a dialect of the Slavonic; but it is now so mixed with German words as to be almost unintelligible to strangers: yet excellent German is spoken by the higher classes, and is taught in all the seminaries. The same observations nearly apply to Hungary, where with their Finnish dialect they intermix the Slavonic and German idioms. The Lord's Prayer in the pure Hungarian, which is spoken in the interior of the country, is as follows:

Mi atyánk ki vagy a mennyekben, zentelssék meg a te neved; jojjon el a te orzagod: Legyen meg a te akarated, minn

a menyben, ugy itt e foldonnis. A mi mindennapi, kenyérünket ad meg nekünk; es bocsasd meg a mi vetkeinket, mi-keppin miis megbocsatunk azoknak a kik mi ellenenc vetke-tenek; es ne vigy minket a kesertetbe; de zabadits meg minket a gonoszol; mert tied az orssag, a hatalom, es a dir-soseg mind orokke. Amen.

The literary history of the Austrian dominions cannot ascend to a remote period. That of Austria Proper, in particular, is little interesting; yet with respect to the whole of Germany, no country has produced such a great variety of authors, as we shall shew in a future part of our work. But there always appears to have been a vast difference, in modern times, between the northern and southern provinces of the German empire. The former, by acceding to the reformed religion, were blessed with that general light and knowledge which always accompanies genuine Christianity; while the latter, labouring under the superstitious influence of Popery, have made, comparatively, but little figure in the annals of literature.

The empress Theresa instituted schools for the education of children: but these scholars are taught metaphysics before they know Latin; and a blind veneration for the monks forms one of the first exertions of their reason.

The universities are numerous; but the sciences taught with the greatest care are mostly those which are of the smallest utility. The university of Vienna has, since the year 1752, been considerably improved. It was founded in 1237, and that of Prague in 1347: the latter of which, it is said, could, at one period, boast of upwards of 30,000 students; but in 1804 they consisted of little more than 200. That of Gratz was founded in 1585. Hungary chiefly boasts of Buda, though the Jesuits instituted academies at Raab and Caschau. Dr. Townson informs us that the university of Buda, by the Germans called Offen, possesses an income of about £20,000 sterling, only £4000 of which are applied to pay the salaries of the professors. Besides the usual chairs which exist in every university, there are those of natural history, botany, and economy. The collection of instruments for natural philosophy, and the models of machines, are good; and the museum of natural history, which contains the collection of the late professor Piller, besides that of the university, may be ranked among the fine collections of Europe. There is a Calvinist college or university at Debritzin; and the bishop of Erlau has recently established a splendid university in that city.

Army.—Boetticher computed the Austrian army at 365,455 men, in 136 regiments, of which 46 are German, and only 11 Hungarian. This numerous army has, however, been greatly diminished in the late sanguinary contests with

France. The Austrians are in general reckoned good soldiers; but they are by no means so active and quick in the various military evolutions as the French. The Hungarian light horse are well known in modern times by the name of Husars; but their horses being in general smaller than the German and Bohemian horses, they stand up on their short stirrups when they strike. Their services have been found so essential in war, that the greatest powers in Europe now have troops which go by the same name. In cases of great emergency, the sovereign has power to summon the great nobility to take the field to defend their country. This is termed the *insurrectio*, and from it even the highest orders of the clergy are not exempt.

Revenue.—Previous to the late unfortunate wars with France in 1805 and 1809, the revenues of the Austrian empire were estimated at upwards of £10,000,000 sterling; to which Austria Proper contributed £3,000,000, Hungary £2,000,000, Bohemia and Moravia £2,000,000, and the remaining £3,000,000 was derived from the lesser provinces. The best writers on the subject are of opinion that the present revenue exceeds the general amount above mentioned; but the recent impositions and exactions of the French have burdened the state with a debt exceeding £100,000,000 sterling.

Orders of Knighthood, &c.—The orders of knighthood throughout the German empire (of which the house of Austria was for a length of time at the head) were very numerous; every elector, and, indeed, every independent prince, assuming a right of instituting orders. The only one that can, with any propriety, be said to belong to Austria is that of the *Golden Fleece*, which was first instituted at Bruges, in Flanders, January 10, 1420, by Philip, duke of Burgundy, who is supposed to have chosen this as his badge from its being the chief staple manufacture of his country. At present there are two orders of it, at the head of one of which is the Austrian emperor, and of the other the king of Spain. All the knights of this order must prove their noble descent from the 12th century, which renders this one of the most illustrious in Europe. In Hungary is the order of *St. Stephen*, the badge of which is an Hungarian cross, suspended by a green-edged ribband.

The arms of this empire are a black eagle, with two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold: over the heads of the eagle is seen the imperial crown.

Laws.—The laws vary according to the different provinces, almost every state having its peculiar code. The Hungarians have vigorously defended their ancient laws, though in many in-

stances they were unjust, the peasantry being in a state of vassalage till 1785. In general the laws may be regarded as mild and salutary; and the Austrians, in particular, are a well regulated and contented people, while the Hungarians are often dissatisfied, and retain much of their ancient animosity against the Germans.

Government.—The form of government is an hereditary monarchy, and approaching to absolute power. Though Hungary retains its ancient states, or rather an aristocratical senate; yet the dominions being so various and extensive, and the military force wholly in the hands of the sovereign, no distinct kingdom or state can withstand his will. Austria has its states, consisting of four orders, clergy, peers, knights, and burghesses; the assembly for Lower Austria being held at Vienna, and that of the Upper at Linz. The power of Austria received a dreadful shock by the conduct of the petty princes, who, in the campaign of 1805, shook off their allegiance; and on the 6th of April 1806, the emperor Francis II. formally renounced their future allegiance to him, and assumed the title of Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary, Bohemia, &c. &c. By the unfortunate campaign of 1809, the power of this monarchy was considerably reduced; but the recent matrimonial alliance between France and Austria has apparently introduced a better understanding between those two powers than has existed for a considerable length of time.

Historical Epochs.—Pinkerton gives the following as the principal historical epochs of the house of Austria:

“1. The house of Austria, which, by successive fortunate marriages since the 15th century, has arisen to such a summit of power, is well known to have sprung from the humble counts of Hapsburg. Those lords possessed a small territory in Switzerland, in the northern corner of the canton of Bern, near the river Aar, about three miles south of the town of Bruck, and the same distance to the north of Mellingen. On a lofty eminence, crowned with beech, stands an ancient tower, the first seat of the house of Austria. In the 12th century Otho is designed count of Hapsburg; and even heraldry can scarcely ascend beyond his grandsire, Radebot, brother of Werner, bishop of Strasburg. In 1273 Rodolph of Hapsburg was called to the imperial throne, after an interregnum, during which the German potentates had increased, and secured their own power, wisely preferring a nominal sovereign, whose humble extract and small possessions could afford no check to their ambition. Yet Rodolph was at this time lord of the greater part of Switzerland, after the extinction of the powerful house of Zaeringen, and that of the counts

counts of Kyburg; whose joint inheritance devolving to Rodolph, became the basis of his power, and that of his successors.

" 2. Another emperor of the house of Austria appeared in Albert, A.D. 1298, from whom the Swiss made their signal revolt in 1307. His son Frederic was obliged to yield the empire to Louis of Bavaria.

" 3. Albert II. duke of Austria, A.D. 1438, succeeded to three crowns, on the death of his father-in-law the emperor Sigismund, those of Hungary and Bohemia, and that of the empire by unanimous election. This was the epoch of the lasting grandeur of the house of Austria. Yet his successors Frederic III. and Maximilian I. were feeble princes; and Charles V. first astonished Europe with a real display of Austrian power.

" 4. Maximilian having married the heiress of Burgundy, the Netherlands became subject to the house of Austria in 1477; and his son Philip, in 1496, marrying the heiress of Arragon and Castile, the ample dominions of Spain fell afterwards under the Austrian sceptre. Charles V. inherited all these domains; but on his resignation Spain and the Netherlands passed to his son Philip II., and the former crown continued in the Austrian line till the close of the 17th century. Austria, Bohemia, and Hungary, passed to Ferdinand, the brother of Charles V., who was also chosen emperor of Germany.

" 5. The noted bigotry of the house of Austria was not confined to the Spanish branch; for though Maximilian II. (about 1570) had granted liberty of conscience even to the Protestants of Austria, yet those of Bohemia and other parts were afterwards so much oppressed, that the Protestant princes of Germany, called in Gustaf Adolf, the celebrated Swedish monarch, to their assistance, who shook the empire to its very foundations. Even France supported the Protestants, in the view of weakening the Austrian power; and the war continued till 1648, when the famous treaty of Westphalia was signed, which has served as a basis for other diplomatic transactions.

" 6. The war with France was often rekindled during the long reign of Leopold I. 1658 to 1705; and in 1683 the Turks were so successful as to lay siege to Vienna.

" 7. His son Joseph I. joined the allies against France, and shared in their success. He married the daughter of John Frederic, duke of Hanover.

" 8. By the death of the emperor Charles VI., on the 20th of October, 1740, without male issue, the house of Austria became extinct. The elector of Bavaria seized the kingdom of Bohemia,

and was elected emperor in 1742, but died in 1745.

" 9. Francis of Lorraine, son of Leopold duke of Lorraine, having married Maria Theresa, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. succeeded to the Austrian dominions, which continue to be held by his descendants. In 1745 he was elected emperor, and his successors have enjoyed the imperial crown as if hereditary. The powerful house of Lorraine is of great antiquity, descending from Gerard count of Alsace, in the 11th century, whose origin is referred to a collateral branch of the house of Austria.

" 10. The reign of the emperor Joseph II., a beneficent but impetuous prince, whose grand designs of reformation were frustrated by his ignorance of the inveteracy of habits and prejudices, which must ever be considered in a due estimate of human affairs.

" 11. The obdurate and sanguinary contest with France, the events of which are known to all."

Next in importance to the epochs of the Austrian power, are those of the kingdom of Hungary:

" 1. The Roman province of Dacia. The conquest by the Huns, and afterwards by the Avars and other Slavonic tribes.

" 2. The conquest by the Ogurs, or the Magiars, who continued under dukes from their first settlement in 884.

" 3. St. Stephen, first king of Hungary, A.D. 1000. The crown is partly elective, and partly hereditary; and among the chief historical events are the wars in Dalmatia against the Venetians.

" 4. Louis I. surnamed the Great, A.D. 1342, subdues a great part of Dalmatia, and carries his arms into Italy. He was succeeded by his daughter Mary, who was styled *King* of Hungary; but dying in 1392, the succession became controverted, and at last terminated in the election of Sigismund, marquis of Brandenburg, who had wedded Mary the heiress. In 1411 he was chosen emperor of Germany.

" 5. Albert of Austria, having wedded Elizabeth the heiress of Sigismund, was, with her, crowned king and queen of Hungary, 1438; an event which forms the earliest basis of the Austrian claim to the Hungarian monarchy. Upon the death of Albert, Ladislas, king of Poland, is also chosen king of Hungary, but perishes in the battle of Werna against the Turks. The famous John Hunniades is appointed regent of the kingdom.

" 6. On the death of another Ladislas, the posthumous son of Albert of Austria, in 1457, the celebrated Mathias Corvinus, son of Hunniades,

is

is proclaimed king of Hungary by the states, assembled in the plain of Rakos, near Pesth. In 1485, he seized Vienna, and the other Austrian states, and retained them till his death, in 1490. Mathias was the greatest prince who had ever held the Hungarian sceptre, brave, prudent, generous, the friend of arts and letters, and a man of letters himself. He founded a magnificent library at Buda, and furnished it with the best Greek and Latin books, and many valuable manuscripts.

"7. After repeated contests, the house of Austria again fills the throne of Hungary, in the person of Ferdinand, 1527; but towards the end of his reign the Turks seized on the greater part of this kingdom. On his being chosen emperor of Germany, Ferdinand retained the crown of Hungary till 1563, when he resigned it to his son Maximilian; and it has since continued a constant appanage of the house of Austria.

"The grand-duchy of Transylvania was considered as a part of Hungary till 1540, when, in consequence of a treaty between the vaivod and Ferdinand of Austria, Transylvania began to be regarded as a distinct state. Stephen Battori having been elected prince of Transylvania in 1571, that family continued to hold this petty sovereignty till 1602, after which it continued subject to several elective princes, of whom the most distinguished was Bethlem Gabor, or Gabriel Betlem, a noble Hungarian, and a Calvinist, who conquered a great part of Hungary in 1619, and died in 1629. The last prince of Transylvania was Michael Abaffi, the second of that name, who yielded the sovereignty to the emperor in 1694, since which period this country has formed a part of the Austrian dominions."

The historical epochs of the kingdom of Bohemia are,

"1. In the seventh century the Slavons seizing on Bohemia were ruled by chiefs, or dukes, seemingly hereditary, at least after Borzivoi, who embraced Christianity in the year 894. In the eleventh century, Bretislas subdued the little adjacent kingdom of Moravia.

"2. Vratisslas, duke of Bohemia, is honoured with the regal title by the emperor Henry IV. in 1086, who at the same time invested him with the domains of Lusatia, Moravia, and Silesia. But this dignity was personal; and the constant title of King only dates from Premislas II. in

1199. He and his immediate successors are styled Ottocari, from their zeal in the cause of the emperor Otto.

"3. One of the most renowned monarchs was another Premislas Ottocar, who ascended the throne in 1253, seized Austria and Stiria, and other provinces to the south, and carried his arms into Prussia. In 1271 he refused the imperial crown, which was afterwards given to Rodolph count of Hapsburg, who insisting on the restitution of the Austrian states, Ottocar said that he had paid Rodolph his wages, and owed him nothing; for that count had been his mareschal, or master of the horse. A reconciliation was effected by matrimonial alliances, and by Ottocar receiving the investiture of Bohemia and Moravia, on renouncing Austria, Stiria, and Carinthia. His son Wenceslas was elected king of Poland; but refused the sceptre of Hungary in favour of his son.

"4. The ancient lineage having failed, John count of Luxembourg, who had married a daughter of the king of Bohemia, became king in 1310, and was slain at the battle of Cressy, fighting against the English in 1346. His son and successor, Charles, was also emperor of Germany.

"5. In the reign of Wenceslas VI., king of Bohemia, and emperor, John Huss having read the books of Wickliffe, the English reformer, introduced his doctrines into Bohemia. He was condemned to the flames in 1415. The Bohemians and Moravians have since become remarkable for various sects of religion, and consequent intestine commotions. The Hussites, under Ziska, repeatedly defeated the troops of their king Sigismond, brother of Wenceslas, and also emperor of Germany.

"6. Albert of Austria, having wedded the daughter of Sigismond, received the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary. But the succession was afterwards controverted and infringed by George Podiebrad (a Hussite chief, who obtained from the weakness of the emperor Frederic III. of the house of Austria, the crown of Bohemia in 1459), by Vladislas, son of the Polish monarch, and by Mathias, king of Hungary.

"7. Louis, son of Vladislas, succeeded his father in the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary; but being slain at the battle of Mohatz, 1526, the crown finally passed to the house of Austria."

CHAP. IX.

GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW.

General and Preliminary Observations—Name—Situation and Extent—Boundaries—Divisions, Chief Towns, &c.—Climate and Seasons—Soil and Agriculture—Rivers and Lakes—Forests—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Curiosities—Antiquities—Original Population—Manners and Customs—Manufactures and Commerce—Religion—Laws and Government—History, &c.

THE pages of history cannot furnish a period, since the earliest ages of society, so pregnant with revolutionary schemes and ambitious usurpations as the last thirty years. Besides various others, which we have already had occasion to notice, was the noted partition of the late unfortunate kingdom of Poland between the emperors of Austria and Russia and the king of Prussia, in 1772 and 1795, a short account of which has already been given in our history of Russia, and will again be alluded to in the historical sketch subjoined to this chapter.

Name.—It is hardly necessary to state (for it is in the recollection of every one) that this duchy is of no greater antiquity, under its present form of government, than the year 1807, when, after an unsuccessful coalition between Russia and Prussia against France, the treaty of Tilsit was concluded July 27th, by the fifth and seventh articles of which this state was formed*. It is entirely composed of that dismembered portion of Poland acquired by Prussia in 1795, and annexed to that country under the names of Southern Prussia and New East Prussia. Its name is evidently acquired from the ancient capital of Poland, Warsaw, which is seated near the centre of this duchy. Though nominally annexed to the kingdom of Saxony, it is separated from it by Silesia, and therefore demands a separate illustration.

Situation and Extent.—This territory is situated between 51 and 55 degrees of north latitude, and 15 and 24 of east longitude. It extends about 240 miles from north to south, and 500 from east to west.

Boundaries.—It is bounded on the north by Prussia Proper; on the east by Russian Poland (Lithuania); on the south by Galicia and Silesia; and on the west by Silesia and Pomerania.

Divisions.—This country has of late undergone several changes, both with regard to its names and masters. Under the Polish monarchy it comprehended the two provinces of Great Poland and Masovia, with a small part of several others. While under the dominion of Prussia, it was divided, as before mentioned, into Southern Prussia, and New Eastern Prussia, which are naturally divided by the river Vistula, and are now known by the names of the Eastern and Western Divisions of the Duchy of Warsaw, of the extent and population of which the following is an accurate statement:

	Sq. Miles.	Inhabitants.
Western Division . .	15,000	1,100,000
Eastern Division . .	11,000	700,000

WESTERN DIVISION.

This division, which formerly comprehended the whole of the province of Great Poland, with a small part of Masovia, is nearly 200 miles square, and abounds in all the necessaries of life. It is subdivided into the palatinates of Posnania, Kalish, Siradia, Leacziez, Rawa, and Warsaw, all of which have chief towns of the same names; the principal of these are,

1. *Warsaw*, the ancient capital of Poland, situated

"Those provinces which, on the 1st of January, 1772, formed a part of the kingdom of Poland, and have since, at different times, been subjected to Prussia, (with the exception of the countries named or alluded to in the preceding article, and of those which are described below in the 9th article) shall become the possession of his majesty the king of Saxony, with power of possession and sovereignty, under the title of the Duchy of Warsaw, and shall be governed according to a regulation, which will ensure the liberties and privileges of the people of the said duchy, and be consistent with the security of the neighbouring states.

"For a communication betwixt the kingdom of Saxony and the Duchy of Warsaw, his majesty the king of Saxony is to have the free use of a military road through the states of his majesty the king of Prussia. This road, the number of troops which are allowed to pass at once, and the resting places, shall be fixed by a particular agreement between the two sovereigns, under the mediation of France." *Treaty of Tilsit, Articles 5 and 7.*

tuated on the river Vistula, 760 miles east from London. It is surrounded by a moat and double wall, and consists of the Old and New Towns, with the two suburbs of Praga and Kraga on the opposite side of the river, which is here nearly as wide as the Thames at London, but very shallow in the summer season. This city and its suburbs occupy a great extent of ground: it stands partly in a plain, and partly on a gentle ascent, rising gradually from the river; but the appearance is melancholy, from the general poverty of Poland under its former unhappy governments. It exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty, luxury and distress. The streets are spacious, but ill-paved; the churches and public buildings are large and magnificent; the palaces of the nobility are numerous and splendid; but the greater part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean and ill-constructed wooden hovels. The inhabitants, in number about 70,000*, carry on a considerable traffic in the various products of the circumjacent country; but they have no manufactures of consequence. In the last siege of this city by the Russians, in 1794, it is computed that 80,000 Poles perished either by the sword or in the flames, the suburbs of Praga having been set on fire, and nearly reduced to ashes, by the merciless Russians under Suwarrow, ten hours after all opposition had ceased.

2. *Gnesna*, or *Gnesen*, the capital of the ancient province emphatically called Great Poland. It is an old and meanly-built place, and is chiefly remarkable for its fine cathedral, being the metropolitan archbishop's see of all Poland.

3. *Posna*, or *Posen*, a considerable city situated upon the river Warta, or Wartha, one of the principal tributary streams of the Oder, 145 miles W.N.W. of Warsaw. It contains several fine churches and convents, and carries on a considerable trade with Germany in various articles of produce and manufacture. It has a famous university, which, however, went greatly to decay while in the possession of Prussia. Here are some good houses, built chiefly of stone and brick; but the other towns are principally of timber, and, though numerous, of small importance.

THE EASTERN DIVISION

Comprehends the principal part of the ancient province of Masovia. It is subdivided into the palatinates of Czersk, or Masovia Proper, and Poland; but is far from being so populous or well cultivated as the western division. It abounds with large and almost impenetrable forests, the

timber of which is floated down the various rivers, and forms the chief riches of the inhabitants. The towns are quite inconsiderable, being almost entirely built with timber, and of small extent. The only place worthy of notice is

Bielsk, the capital of the palatinate of Podolia, remarkable for its great annual fairs, which render it the chief mart for the produce of this part of the country. It is indifferently built, with some stone edifices; but contains nothing which demands particular description.

Climate and Seasons.—The climate of this country is, on the whole, superior to that of Prussia, which, from its proximity to the Baltic, is exposed to very cold winds and frequent storms; but the seasons are, almost in every respect, the same, except that the winters are rather shorter, and the weather in general more settled.

Soil, Face of the Country, and Agriculture.—The soil of this grand duchy is, in general, loamy and fertile, except a few sandy tracts which will occur in a country the face of which resembles an immense plain, with scarcely any rising ground whatever. In some parts there are very extensive and almost impenetrable forests and marshes, which cannot be supposed to add to the salubrity of the air. Till within a very few years, agricultural improvements were little attended to; and, indeed, the most despicable state of vassalage under which the peasants laboured while under the yoke of Poland, precluded all exertions of this kind. Under the Prussian sceptre the inhabitants of this country began to emerge from the torpid and inactive state in which they had for centuries lived, excluded by the feudal system from all hopes of promotion or reward. But it was reserved for the mild government of Saxony to exonerate the peasantry from that system of wanton extortion and capricious personal services so severely exacted by the Polish aristocracy, so that they now display signs of comparative ease and prosperity. In different parts the land is let out in farms, as in England, and peasants are hired as day-labourers; while under the old government they were mere slaves, and every avenue to industry was barred. This country produces abundance of corn and pasture, together with every kind of grain and esculent plant that can flourish in such a latitude.

Rivers and Lakes.—In the description which has already been given of Prussia and the Austrian empire, we have given an ample account of the Vistula, Bug, and the other streams which inter-

* Hoeck estimated the population in 1802, at 66,572.

sect this country; the only one of consequence at present undescribed is the Warta, or Wartha, a considerable stream which rises on the confines of Galicia, and, after running nearly the whole extent of this country from east to west, falls into the Oder near Custrin. The lakes are very numerous, but inconsiderable; none deserving particular exemplification.

Forests.—In this particular this country is supposed to be the most productive in Europe; and the timber is of the first quality, and in the highest request. The trees chiefly consist of oak, beech, pine, and fir, immense quantities of which are floated down the different rivers and streams, at almost incredible labour and fatigue, to the several ports in the Baltic, and from thence exported to all parts of Europe.

Animals.—The forests of this duchy contain great numbers of *uri*, or buffalos, whose flesh the Poles powder, and esteem it an excellent dish. Wolves, boars, the glutton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Polish forests; there are also wild horses and asses, and wild oxen. A kind of wolf resembling a hart, with spots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best fur in the country. The elk, which is common in the northern parts of Galicia, is a very extraordinary animal. The flesh of the Polish elk forms the most delicious part of their feasts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, and the feet broad, like a wild goat's. Naturalists have observed, that, upon dissecting an elk, there are frequently found in his head some large flies, and the brain almost eaten away; and it is an observation sufficiently attested, that, in the large woods and wildernesses of the north, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger sort of flies, that through its ears, attempt to take up their winters-quarters in its head. This persecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling sickness, by which means it is frequently taken more easily than it would be otherwise.

This country also produces a creature called *bohac*, which resembles a guinea-pig, but seems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, till April: they have separate apartments for their provisions, lodgings, and their dead: they live together by ten or twelve in a herd. Here are also large eagles and vultures. The quails, it is said, have green legs, and their flesh is reckoned unwholesome. The *remiz*, or little species of titmouse, is frequently found in these parts: it is remarkable for the wondrous structure of its pendent nest, formed in the

shape of a long purse, with amazing art, at the extremity of long slender twigs of trees hanging over the water.

The domestic animals are numerous; black cattle, horses of a good breed, and sheep, the wool of which is said to be very fine. The rivers and lakes abound with excellent fish of all sorts; and the forests swarm with gnats and insects, which are troublesome in summer.

Vegetables.—The indigenous vegetables of this country have hitherto been only described in a very cursory manner; among these there do not seem to be any that have not been noticed in the preceding account of Prussia and Austria. Here being little or no rising grounds, there is, of course, a great deficiency of alpine plants, and the prevailing vegetables are those that inhabit level and sandy districts. Tobacco, originally a native of America, has been planted here with such success that it has established itself in the soil, and is found in the ploughed fields and hedges as a common weed. The manna of this and the other parts of Poland is produced by a herb that grows in the meadows and marshy grounds. In the months of June and July the inhabitants gather it by sweeping it into sieves, with the dew; it is esteemed a great delicacy by the Poles, who dress it in a variety of ways. The woods abound in oak, beech, pine, and fir trees.

Minerals.—The mineralogy of this country will not afford an extensive dissertation, sand and plains seldom containing minerals; there are some iron mines, however, in the eastern division of this territory, but they are not worked to any advantage.

Curiosities.—In so level a country as that of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw we can, of course, expect but few natural curiosities. The most wonderful are the wild people that are sometimes found in the woods, whither, it is supposed, their parents carried them in their infancy, to avoid the Tartars, who formerly used often to make incursions into these territories, and carry whole villages into slavery. Those that have been taken go upon all four, though they sometimes stand upright. They have not the use of speech at first; but have been taught to articulate tolerably plain by being brought into the towns, and used kindly; and they retain no traces of their former savage life when humanized and made conversable.

Antiquities.—Few remains of antiquities can be expected in a country which for such a number of ages has made so little progress in the arts or sciences. Some of the household gods of the Slavonians (the ancient inhabitants) are to be met with in private families: they are of rude sculpture

sculpture, but in high veneration. The Polish coinage begins about the 12th century, and is upon the German model.

Original Population.—The original population of this country, as well as that of Prussia and the whole of Poland, appears, from Tacitus and other ancient authors, to have been originally Gothic; but the old Gothic inhabitants having crowded to the more fertile regions of the south, in consequence of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, the few that remained were either expelled or subdued by the Slavonic tribes of the east; but at what period is uncertain. From these the present race of inhabitants is descended.

Manners, Customs, &c.—The Poles, in their persons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their shapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honest, and hospitable; and their women sprightly, yet modest, and submissive to their husbands. Their mode of salute is to incline their heads, and to strike their breasts with one of their hands, while they stretch the other towards the ground. But when a common person meets a superior, he bows his head near to the earth, and with his head touches the leg near to the heel of the person to whom he pays obeisance. Their diversions are warlike and manly: vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horse, hunting, skating, bull and bear-baiting. They usually travel on horseback; a Polish gentleman will not travel a stone's throw without his horse; and they are so hardy, that they will sleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in frost and snow. The Poles never live above stairs, and their apartments are not united: the kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwelling-house on the third, and the gate in the front. They content themselves with a few small beds; and if any lodge at their houses, they must carry their bedding with them. When they sit down to dinner or supper, they have trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all serving with the most profound respect; for the nobles who are poor frequently find themselves under the necessity of serving those that are rich: but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peasant-boy to wait on him, maintained by the master of the family. At an entertainment the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor spoons, but every guest brings them with him; and they no sooner sit down to table, than all the doors are shut, and not opened till the company return home. It is usual for a nobleman to give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let him

drink out of the same cup with himself; but this is the less extraordinary, if it be considered that these servants are esteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in fashion, both here and in Russia; nor will they easily excuse any person from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and equipages of the Polish nobility; and the reader must figure to himself an idea of all that is fastidious, ceremonious, expensive, and showy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule; for it is not unusual to see the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, with a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman-usher, an old gentlewoman for her governess, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux.

The ancient Poles were divided into nobles, clergy, citizens, or burghers, and peasants. The peasants were of two sorts; those of the crown, and those belonging to individuals. Though Poland had its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility were naturally on a level, except the difference that arose from the public posts they enjoyed. Hence all who were of noble birth called one another *brothers*. They did not value titles of honour, but thought a *gentleman of Poland* the highest appellation they could enjoy. They had many considerable privileges; and, indeed, the boasted Polish liberty was properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient custom and prescription. Under their ancient constitution, before the last partition of the country, they had a power of life and death over their tenants and vassals; paid no taxes; were subject to none but the king; might choose whom they would for their king; and none but they, and the burghers of some particular towns, could purchase lands. In short, they were almost entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well-regulated state; but if they engaged in trade, they forfeited their nobility. These great privileges made the Polish gentry powerful; many of them had large territories, with a despotic power over their tenants, whom they called their subjects, and transferred or assigned over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until the reign of Casimir the Great, the Polish lord could put his peasants to death with impunity; and, when the latter had no children, considered himself as their heir, and seized all their effects. In 1347 Casimir prescribed a fine for the murder of a peasant; and enacted that, in case of his de-

cease

cease without issue, his next heir should inherit. But these and other regulations proved ineffectual against the power and tyranny of the nobles, and were either abrogated or eluded. Some of them had estates from 5 to 30 leagues in extent, and were also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king had no concern. One of their nobles sometimes possessed above 4000 towns and villages; and some of them could raise 8 or 10,000 men. The house of a nobleman was a secure asylum for persons who had committed any crime; for none might presume to take them from thence by force. They had their horse and foot-guards, which were upon duty day and night before their palaces, and in their antichambers, and marched before them when they went abroad. They made an extraordinary figure when they came to the diet, some of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate were often determined by the sword. When great men had suits at law, the diet or tribunals decided them; yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword; for the justice of the kingdom was commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they would raise 6000 men of a side, plunder and burn one another's cities, and besiege castles and forts; for they thought it below them to submit to the sentence of judges without a field-battle. As to the peasants, they were born slaves, and had no idea of liberty. If one lord killed the peasant of another, he was not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation by another peasant equal in value.

The peasants were at the absolute disposal of their master, and all their acquisitions served only to enrich him. They were indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; they were incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lord; and they were exposed to the dismal and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical proprietors. In modern times, indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understandings ventured to give liberty to their vassals. The first who granted this freedom was Zemoiski, formerly great chancellor, who in 1760 enfranchised six villages in the palatinate of Masovia, and afterwards on all his estates. The event shewed the project to be no less judicious than humane, equally conducive to the interests of the nobles and the happiness of the peasants; for it appeared that, in the districts in which the new arrangements had been introduced, the population of the villages considerably increased, and the revenues of their estates were augmented in a triple proportion.

The inns in this country are long stables, built with boards, and covered with straw, without furniture or windows: there are chambers at one end; but none can lodge there because of flies and other vermin, so that strangers generally choose rather to lodge among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provision with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with necessaries.

The dress of the Poles is rather singular. They shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown; and men of all ranks generally wear large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it, lined with fur, and girded with a sash; but the sleeves fit as close to their arms as a waistcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their shirts are without collar or wristbands; and they wear neither stock nor neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels, bent like a half moon. They carry a pole-axe, and a sabre, or cutlass, by their sides. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the best quality wear sables, and others the skins of tigers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty suits of clothes, all as rich as possible, and which descend from father to son. Were it not for our own partiality to short dresses, we must acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majestic. Charles II. of England thought of introducing the Polish dress into his court, and, after his restoration, wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of the English broad-cloth; but discontinued it through his connections with the French. The habit of the women very much resembles that of the men—a simple Polonaise, or long robe edged with fur; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. As to the peasants, in winter they wear a sheep's skin with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet.

The Polish women, in the eastern division of this country, and in the neighbouring parts of Russian Poland, keep a watchful eye over the conduct of their daughters; and they make them wear little bells both before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The manufactures of this country are far from being numerous

rous or important, consisting chiefly of articles fabricated for home consumption. The chief commerce of the duchy is derived from the products of the ground, consisting chiefly of corn and rye, immense quantities of which, together with timber of all kinds, are forwarded by the Vistula to Dantzic, and from thence, in time of peace, to all parts of Europe. A great part of the trade of the interior of the country, where there is a great deficiency of commercial towns, is carried on by travelling Jews and Scotch pedlars, who travel from village to village with their different kinds of wares, sometimes on horseback, but more frequently on foot.

Language and Literature.—The language of this duchy is the Polish: the German, however, is understood in many parts of it; and an impure and incorrect Latin is also commonly in use. The Polish language is a dialect of the Slavonic; but it is harsh and unharmonious, from the great number of consonants employed in it, and the frequent recurrence of the letters *s* and *z*. The Polish Paternoster is as follows:

Oycze nasz który na niebiesiech iestes; niech sie swieci imie twoie; niech przydzie ono krolestwo twoie, niech sie stanie ona wola twoja iako u niebie tak y na ziemi. Chleba naszego onego powssedniego day nam dzisia, y odpuse nam nasze winy, iako y my od puszczamy winowaycom naszym; y nie u wodz nas u pokuszenie; ale wyrwi nas od onego slego: iz twoie iest krolestwo, y moc, y chwala, na wieki. Amen.

Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Vorstius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet many circumstances in this country were formerly far from being favourable to learning. Kadlubko, the most ancient Polish historian, wrote in 1223; and since his time there has been a succession of Latin chronicles, which language is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some parts. But the contempt which the nobility, who placed their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, ever shewed for learning; the servitude of the lower people, and the universal superstition among all ranks of them, have wonderfully retarded the progress of letters in this country. However, of late a taste for science has spread itself among the nobles; and the close connection which at present subsists between this duchy and Saxony, the inhabitants of which are the most learned and accomplished of all the Germans, will, no doubt, effect a great change in this respect; and we are informed by our public prints, that at length learning begins to be regarded as an accomplishment.

The only university pertaining to this duchy is that of Posna, or Posen, which in 1802 did not contain more than 200 students.

Religion.—The doctrine of the church of Rome

is the prevailing profession here; but Lutherans, Calvinists, and Greeks, together with all other persuasions, are tolerated. The Jews, who are extremely numerous, enjoy several privileges here which have long been denied them in the more civilized nations of Europe. The numbers of this religious sect in the ancient kingdom of Poland, before the partition of 1772, were estimated at upwards of 1,000,000.

Revenue.—After the partition of 1772 the entire revenue of the kingdom of Poland did not exceed £439,546 sterling, which to the inhabitants of Great Britain at the present day may appear but a very trifling sum; but if the relative value of money be taken into consideration, it will not perhaps be deemed so insignificant as might at first sight be imagined. About one-half of this sum, or nearly £250,000, is perhaps the revenue which the king of Saxony receives from this duchy, almost the whole of which is expended in the maintenance of a standing army, in order to prevent the sudden incursions of the neighbouring potentates.

Constitution and Government.—The ancient constitution of the kingdom of Poland differed little from aristocracy; hence it has been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king was head of the republic, and was elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warsaw. They elected him on horseback; and in case there should be a refractory minority, the majority had no control over them but to cut them in pieces with their sabres; but if the minority were sufficiently strong, a civil war ensued. Immediately after his election, he signed the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engaged that the crown should be elective; that his successor should be appointed during his life; that the diets should be assembled every two years; that every nobleman or gentleman in the land should have a vote in the diet of election; and that in case the king should infringe the laws and privileges of the nation, his subjects should be exempted from their allegiance.

The diets of Poland were ordinary and extraordinary: the former met once in two, and sometimes three years; the latter were summoned by the king upon critical emergencies, and continued no longer than a fortnight: but one dissenting voice rendered all their deliberation ineffectual. Previous to a general diet, ordinary or extraordinary, which at the longest could sit but six weeks, there were dietines, or provincial diets, in the different districts. The king, with the advice of his council, sent them letters containing the heads of the business that was to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate could sit in the dietine, and choose nuncios

nuncios, or delegates, to represent them (if they did not choose to go) in the general diet, which met twice at Warsaw, and once at Grodno, by turns, for the convenience of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland. However, in the reign of their last monarch, Stanislaus, they always met at Warsaw. After the final partition of this country in 1795, the whole of the territory composing this duchy was annexed to Prussia, which being an absolute monarchy, did not allow the people any participation in the government. This is said to have given general dissatisfaction, and was taken advantage of by Buonaparte, who instituted a Polish legion in his armies, into which he invited by proclamation the dissatisfied Poles to enter, promising them that as soon as a favourable opportunity presented itself, he would restore them to their ancient government; but in this, as in most of his other engagements, he forfeited his word, and shamefully sent those brave fellows to St. Domingo, where they fell a sacrifice to the inhospitality of the climate, and the sword of the injured sons of Africa. Subsequent events produced the treaty of Tilsit, by which, no doubt for the purpose of humbling Prussia, this territory was formed into a separate government, under the sovereignty of the king of Saxony, who restored the ancient form of government, and the general diets, as under the original monarchy, consisting of the nobles, the representatives of boroughs, and the delegates from the peasants. The condition of this latter class has been of late greatly ameliorated, they having been in a great measure released from the feudal tyranny of their oppressors.

History.—To several of the countries that have already come under our consideration we have merely subjoined the principal epochs of their history, without entering into a particular detail; our reason for this has been, that, as it is necessary to enlarge in this particular upon some of the leading empires and kingdoms, the history of minor sovereignties and recent states is so blended with them, that to be minute upon each would be in a great measure to recapitulate what might be more readily communicated in the histories of France, Germany, Russia, &c. But, as the history of ancient Poland forms a separate dynasty in the annals of Europe, our work would be incomplete without a short sketch of the leading events of that country.

Poland, in ancient times, was possessed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Russ and Tartars. It was divided into many small states or principalities, each almost independent of the other, though they generally had some prince who was paramount over the

rest. In the year 700, the people, through the oppression of their petty chiefs, gave the supreme command, under the title of Duke, to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His posterity failing, in the year 830, a peasant, named Piastus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120; and his reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole who has since been elected king is called a Piast. From that period till the accession of Micislaus II. in 964, we have no very certain records of the history of Poland. The title of Duke was retained till the year 999, when Boleslaus assumed the title of King, and conquered Moravia, Prussia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleslaus II. added Red Russia to Poland, by marrying the heiress of that duchy, A.D. 1059. Jagello, who in 1384 mounted the throne, was grand-duke of Lithuania, and a Pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Christian, but used every endeavour to bring over his subjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland, which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preserved in his family until the male line became extinct in Sigismund Augustus, in 1572, who admitted the Reformed, with Greeks and all other sects, to a seat in the diet, and to all the honours and privileges before confined to the Catholics. He gave such evident marks of favour to the Protestant confession, that he was suspected of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland; these were, Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Austria. The French interest prevailed, by private bribes to the nobles, and a stipulation to pay an annual pension to the republic from the revenues of France; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had espoused the interest of Maximilian, endeavoured once more to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Poles being desirous to choose a prince who might reside among them, made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania, who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish himself on the throne, by marrying Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, and of the royal house of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of Cossacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed the

Ukraine,

Ukraine, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles chose Sigismund, son of John, king of Sweden, by Catharine, sister of Sigismund II., for their king.

Sigismund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death; but being expelled, as we have seen in the history of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war ensued between them and the Poles, which terminated in favour of the latter. Sigismund being secured in the throne of Poland, aspired to that of Russia as well as Sweden; but after long wars he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unsuccessful wars with the Turks and Swedes. At last a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes should keep Elbing, Memel, Braunsberg, and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In 1623, Sigismund died, and Uladislaus, his son, succeeded. This prince was successful both against the Turks and the Russians, and obliged the Swedes to restore all the Polish dominions they had taken in Prussia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being instigated, through the avarice of his nobles and generals, to encroach upon the privileges of the Cossacs in the Ukraine. As the war that followed was carried on against the Cossacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Cossacs, naturally a brave people, became desperate; and on the succession of John II. brother to Uladislaus, the Cossac general, Schmielinski, defeated the Poles in two great battles, and forced them to a dishonourable peace. It appears that during the course of this war, the Polish nobility behaved as the worst of ruffians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; while his nobility disapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. As the jealousy hereby occasioned continued, the Russians came to a rupture with the Poles; and, being joined by many of the Cossacs, they, in 1654, took Smolensko. This was followed by the taking of Wilna, and other places, and they committed most horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Polish Prussia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic. The resistance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-assemble; and their king, John Casimir, who had fled into Silesia, was joined by the Tartars as well as the Poles; so that the Swedes, who were dispersed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the same time, disowned the allegiance they had been forced to yield to Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It

was during this expedition that the Dutch and English protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the sovereignty of Ducal Prussia, which had submitted to Charles. Thus the latter lost Poland, of which he had made an almost complete conquest. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Prussia was restored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretensions to Livonia, and to cede Smolensko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Russians.

During these transactions, the Polish nobility grew dissatisfied with the concessions their king had made to the Cossacs, many of whom had thrown off the Polish yoke; others charged him with want of capacity; and some, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Casimir, who very possibly had no such intentions, and was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabals and factions increased every day, and that he himself might fall a sacrifice to the public discontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germain, in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

The most remote descendants of the ancient kings ending in John Casimir, many foreign candidates presented themselves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles chose for their king a private gentleman, of little interest and less capacity, one Michael Wiesnowiski, because he was descended from a Piast. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of Cossacs had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kamienieck, till then thought impregnable. The greatest part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the Sultan. Notwithstanding those disgraceful events, the credit of the Polish arms was in some measure maintained by John Sobieski, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks several defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieski was chosen king; and in 1676 he was so successful against the Infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had imposed upon Poland; but they kept possession of Kamienieck. In 1683, Sobieski, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, was so public-spirited as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Christendom against the Infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna, and making a terrible slaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious services, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he

he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieski, returning to Poland, continued the war against the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the senate, who suspected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

After the death of Sobieski, Poland fell into great distractions. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties seemed inclined to exclude the Sobieski family. In the mean time Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and the crown in a manner put up to sale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the most liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almost sure, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favour of her younger son, prince Alexander Sobieski, for which she was driven from Warsaw to Dantzic. Suddenly Augustus, elector of Saxony, started up as a candidate; and after a sham election, being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city in 1697. The prince of Conti made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, and pretended that he had been actually chosen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. The manner in which the latter was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden (who procured the advancement of Stanislaus), and afterwards restored by the czar Peter the Great, has been already related in the history of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712, that Augustus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Stanislaus, and were perpetually forming conspiracies and plots against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural son, prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was chosen duke of Courland; but Augustus was not able to maintain him in that dignity against the power of Russia and the jealousy of the Poles. Augustus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could to ensure the succession of Poland to his son Augustus II. (or, as he is called by some, III.) This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law, Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a considerable party, of which the prince-primate was the head. But Augustus entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat to Dantzic, whence he escaped, with great difficulty, into

France. The war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and Frederic II. king of Prussia, will be noticed in the history of Germany. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild and moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts; and all he obtained from them was merely shelter, when the king of Prussia drove him from his capital and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus; though it is said that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empress of Russia. He was a man of abilities and address; but, from various concurring causes, he had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity.

In 1766 a petition was presented to the king, in the name of all the Protestant nobility, and in behalf also of the members of the Greek church, conjointly called the *Dissidents*, in which they demanded to be reinstated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the same footing in every respect as the Roman Catholic subjects of the kingdom. The king gave no answer to the petition of the Dissidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held the following year, when the ministers of the courts of Russia, London, Berlin, and Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet appeared to receive the complaints of the Dissidents with great moderation, as to the free exercise of their worship; which gave some flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Prussia appear to have prevented this; for, though he openly professed to be a zealous defender of the cause of the Dissidents, it was manifest, from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Russians in the affairs of Poland also gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation ran into confederacies formed in distinct provinces; the Popish clergy were active in opposing the cause of the Dissidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars, partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confusion, devastation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almost destroyed; many of the principal Popish families retired into foreign states with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Russian troops, which acted as guards to the king at

Warsaw, that city had likewise exhibited a scene of plunder and massacre. To those complicated evils were added, in the year 1770, that most dreadful scourge, the pestilence, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhynia, and the Ukraine; and in these provinces it is said to have swept off 250,000 people. Meanwhile some of the Polish confederates interceded with the Turks to assist them against their powerful oppressors; and a war ensued between the Russians and the Turks on account of Poland. The conduct of the grand seignor, and of the Ottoman Porte, towards the distressed Poles, was just and honourable, and the very reverse of that of their Christian, Catholic, and apostolic neighbours.

In 1764 the empress of Russia had transmitted to the court of Warsaw an act of renunciation, signed with her own hand, and sealed with the seal of the empire, in which she declared, "That she did by no means arrogate, either to herself, her heirs and successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the districts or territories which are actually in possession, or subject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty would guarantee to the said kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania all the immunities, lands, territories, and districts, which the said kingdom and duchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every one who should, at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to dispossess them of the same."—In the same year did the king of Prussia sign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, "That he had no claims, formed no pretensions, on Poland, or any part thereof; that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as a king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the same instrument he guaranteed in the most solemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland against every power whatever.—The empress-queen of Hungary, so late as the month of January, 1771, had written a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which she gave him the strongest assurances, "That her friendship for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motions of her troops ought not to alarm him; that she had never entertained a thought of seizing any part of his dominions, nor would even suffer any other power to do it."

Notwithstanding these positive assurances and most solemn engagements, in 1772, it appeared that the king of Prussia, the emperor and empress-queen, and the empress of Russia, had entered

into an alliance to divide and dismember the kingdom of Poland; though Prussia was formerly in a state of vassalage to Poland, and the title of the king of Prussia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Russia also, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, saw its capital and throne possessed by the Poles; while Austria, in 1683, was indebted to a king of Poland for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence. These three allied powers, acting in concert, set up their formal pretensions to the respective districts which they had allotted for and guaranteed to each other: Polish, or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south-east parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the empress-queen of Hungary and Bohemia; and a large district of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empress of Russia. But though each of these powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories allotted to them respectively, and published manifestos in justification of the measures which they had taken; yet, as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the ceding of those provinces to them respectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered state. In this extremity of distress, several of the Polish nobility protested against this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign states, choosing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiscated, than to be the instruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king, under the threat of deposition and imprisonment, was prevailed upon to sign this act, and his example was followed by many of his subjects.

The conduct of the king of Prussia towards Poland was in the highest degree tyrannical and oppressive. In the year 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and carried off from that province and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the same year, he published an edict commanding every person under the severest penalties, and even corporeal punishment, to take in payment for forage, provisions, corn, horses, &c. the money offered by his troops and commissaries. This money was either silver, bearing the impression of Poland, and exactly worth one-third of its nominal value, or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, 17 per cent. inferior

to the real ducats of Holland. With this base money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchase corn for their daily subsistence at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. At the lowest calculation, he gained, by this *honest* manœuvre, seven millions of dollars. Having thus stripped the country of money and provisions, his next attempt was to thin it still more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions at the expence of Poland, had been his great aim; for this purpose he hit upon a new contribution: every town and village was obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeyes, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were so heavy, and exceeded at last their abilities so much, that the priests abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions were continued with unabated rigour from the year 1771 to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of the provinces usurped. From these proceedings it would appear that his Prussian majesty knew of no rights but his own, no pretensions but those of the house of Brandenburg, no other rule of justice but his own pride and ambition.

In the year 1788 the Poles made some endeavours to assert their independence. The diet met, and the king proposed a confederation, which was agreed to, and the army ordered to be reinforced to 100,000 men. As the evils of an elective monarchy had been the chief cause that Poland had almost ceased to be considered as a nation, a new constitution was framed and approved by the diet and the king, on the 3d of May, 1791. By this constitution the line of the future kings of Poland was to commence in Frederic-Augustus, elector of Saxony; and in case he should have no male issue, a husband chosen by him for his daughter was to commence the dynasty. But this constitution was opposed by the partitioning powers; and, after a short and unequal struggle with Russia, this unhappy country was forced to abandon it. The manifesto of the Russian empress, replete with sentiments disgraceful to humanity, was followed by some skirmishes; but it is said that a letter, written with her own hand to the Polish king, in which she declared her resolution to double or triple her troops, rather than abandon her pretensions;

induced that benignant monarch to prevent the further effusion of blood.

On the 6th of January 1793, the king of Prussia issued a declaration respecting the march of his troops into Poland; and soon after the Prussian army advanced, and one of its detachments appeared under the walls of Thorn. The inhabitants, faithful to their duty, having refused entrance to the troops, experienced an open assault. Cannons were planted against it, the gates were broken open, the municipal guards were dislodged from their post; a defenceless city exhibited the spectacle of a place taken by assault; and the Prussian regiments entered, while the air resounded with their acclamations of triumph. There were no soldiers of the republic in the city to make resistance; it depended for security on public faith, and that was violated. At the same time, different Polish detachments, dispersed throughout Great Poland, were attacked and driven from their posts by superior force.

On the 2d of April the Prussian troops took possession of Dantzic; and about the same time the empress of Russia commanded the king of Poland to remove to Grodno, under the escort of Russian troops, for the express purpose of sanctioning the alienation and partition of his kingdom.

The means employed to effect the mock ratification of the partition of this unfortunate country, were entirely characteristic of the baseness of the cause. The diet, in the month of September, was assailed, for three successive days, with official notes from the Russian ambassador, and the Prussian minister, full of threats and menaces, pressing the signature of the treaty. The states, however, persisted in their refusal. At last M. de Sievers, the Russian ambassador, sent his *ultimatum* in a note, which ended with the following remarkable expressions: "The underwritten must, besides, inform the states of the republic assembled in the confederate diet, that he thought it of absolute necessity, in order to prevent every disorder, to order *two battalions of grenadiers*, with four pieces of cannon, to surround the castle, to secure the *tranquillity* of their deliberations. The underwritten expects, that the sitting will not terminate until the demanded signature of the treaty is decided." Conformably to this threat, the Russian soldiers so closely surrounded the castle, that no person was suffered to go out: some of the officers took their station in the senate, pretending to guard his majesty's person against conspirators; the king, however, sent a delegation to the Russian ambassador, declaring that he would not open the session in the presence of the Russian officers. In consequence, they were ordered to retire, except the general, who

who declared publicly, that no member should be permitted to quit the senate, before the consent to the treaty was given. The debates were long and violent; and it was not until three o'clock the next morning, after three successive divisions, that the diet came to a resolution, in which they declare before all Europe, to whom they had frequently appealed, that, contrary to the faith of treaties most sacredly observed on their part, as well to that of the treaty recently entered into with his majesty the king of Prussia, and at his own desire, in the year 1790, whereby the independence and the integrity of Poland were guaranteed in the most solemn manner; that, being deprived of free will, surrounded at the moment of the present act by an armed foreign force, and threatened with a further invasion of the Prussian troops, they are forced to commission and authorize a deputation appointed to treat with the said king, to sign the treaty, such as it was planned and amended under the mediation of the Russian ambassador.

On the 7th of February, 1794, the baron d'Ingelstrohm, who had succeeded the count de Sievers as ambassador at Warsaw, demanded a public annulling of the acts of the diets of 1788 and 1791, together with the form of the constitution then established, and the surrender of every paper, whether in public records or private cabinets, respecting that transaction. The court of Russia soon afterwards issued its mandate for the reduction of the military force to 16,000 men. This was opposed by several regiments, particularly in South Prussia, where the insurgents, headed by the gallant Madalinski, a Polish nobleman; and brigadier of the national troops, peremptorily refused to disband. The spirit of resistance was widely diffused, and the capital assumed a military aspect. In this situation fifteen thousand Russian troops were sent into Poland; the ambassador was instructed to deliver to the permanent council an official document representing the danger that threatened the king, and requesting the commissioners of war to dispatch an army to oppose Madalinski; and the permanent council was desired to take into custody every suspected person. Both these requisitions were, however, refused; and it was pointedly replied to the latter, that, according to the laws of the republic, no Polish nobleman could be arrested without being legally convicted.

The imperious conduct of the Russians drove the oppressed Poles to desperation. The peasants were compelled to lodge and board the Russian soldiers, and transport them from place to place, without receiving the least remuneration, or any other reward than brutality and inso-

lence. It could not be expected that a gallant and high-spirited people would long tamely submit to such insult and injury. Their patriotic spirit, though latent, was not extinguished. It was roused into action by incessant sufferings, and by continued efforts of the intrepid Kosciusko, who early in February appeared at the head of a considerable body of Polish insurgents, attacked the Prussians who had taken possession of their country, forced them to retreat, and pursued them to a considerable distance. The Russian troops having evacuated Cracow on the 23d of March, Kosciusko entered that town on the night of the 24th, and next morning ordered the gates to be shut, and declared himself commander in chief of all the Polish forces. He then imposed an oath of fidelity on all the military in the city, took possession of the public treasure, and proceeded to measures of military sequestration. On the day on which he entered Cracow, he issued a proclamation, couched in the most energetic terms, inviting the nation to shake off their disgraceful fetters, and to unite in forming a new confederation. The proclamation was received with unanimous applause; and, "Long live Kosciusko!" resounded from every quarter. He was conducted to the town-house, and presented to the principal nobility, who had assembled there to receive him; and by them he was formally invested with the title of General. Every article for the support of his army was abundantly supplied. On the 26th the different corporations assembled under their respective banners before the town-house, whence the magistrates led them in procession to the church of the Holy Virgin, where the constitution of the 3d of May, 1791, was publicly read with great solemnity, and an oath taken to defend it.

The Polish nobles had no sooner taken the oaths in the presence of Kosciusko, than they departed for their respective estates, in order to arm and assemble their vassals. Baron d'Ingelstrohm, about the same time, surrounded the diet at Warsaw with a military force, and demanded the surrender of the arsenal. This demand was spiritedly resisted; and notice of it having been sent to Kosciusko, he, about the end of March, took the route to Warsaw with his army, and a reinforcement of 4000 peasants, armed with pikes, &c. On the 4th of April he was met by a detachment of 6000 Russians, with a park of heavy artillery, on their march to reduce Cracow. A fierce encounter ensued. The Polish peasants being driven to desperation, made a dreadful slaughter of the Russian plunderers. General Woronzow was taken prisoner, and above 1000 Russians killed on the spot; while the Poles lost only sixty men, and took eleven

eleven pieces of cannon, and all the ammunition. After the battle, Kosciusko fell back with his army towards Cracow, where he was joined by a very considerable body of disaffected Polish troops.

On the 16th of April, baron d'Ingelstroph demanded the surrender of the arsenal, the disarming of the military, and that twenty persons of the first consequence should be arrested, and, if found guilty, punished with death. This occasioned a general commotion, in which the citizens, having procured arms from the arsenal, after an incessant combat of thirty-six hours, drove the Russians out of the city with great slaughter. A deputation had been sent to inform the king of the attempt of the Russians to seize the arsenal; when the monarch replied, "Go, and defend your honour." The situation of the king after the contest became very critical, and the people were extremely jealous of every movement he made. They compelled him to promise repeatedly that he would not quit Warsaw; and, not satisfied with his assurances, insisted upon placing two municipal officers as a guard upon him; and he was desired frequently to exhibit himself to the people.

Forty thousand Russians were now put in motion towards Poland from the Ukraine, and 16,000 from Livonia. About the end of May, the corps of Kosciusko amounted to nearly 23,000 men; that of General Kochowski to 18,000; that of Jafinski to 6000: a corps of 12,000 was stationed at Wilna, and another at Warsaw which consisted of 8000. The peasants were not included in this calculation.

About the end of June a manifesto was published by the emperor, on the occasion of his troops entering Poland. On the 12th of July, the head-quarters of the king and prince of Prussia were only three or four leagues from Warsaw, whence they issued a placard, stating that the enemy had fled before them in their progress. In the mean time, however, Kosciusko (who had eluded the Prussian troops), by a brave attack, had defeated the forces which opposed him, and had thrown himself into Warsaw. On the 31st of June, the Prussians began to attack the city by a heavy cannonade, and several hundred bombs were, in the course of the day, thrown into it; a dreadful fire was kept up on the besiegers by day, and an incredible number of lives were lost. The king and prince-royal are both said to have been in imminent danger at this time. On the 2d of August, his Prussian majesty, whose hopes of success had, probably, been a little damped, attempted to open a negotiation with the king of Poland for the surrender of the capital, which was rejected. About the middle of

this month, accounts were transmitted to the Prussian camp of insurrections having arisen in South Prussia, formerly Great Poland, of which his Prussian majesty had taken possession the preceding year; and on the night of the 5th of September, the Prussian and Russian forces abandoned the siege of Warsaw, after a fruitless attack of two months, much weakened by the diseases and desertions which prevailed in their camps, and disabled from the want of provisions and ammunition.

In the course of the same month, the Russian grand army, consisting of 20,000 men, arrived in Poland, and on the 18th a severe engagement took place near Brzesc, in which the Poles lost very considerable numbers, and were compelled to retreat across the Bug. On the 10th of October another battle was fought between the Russians under General Ferfen, and the troops under Kosciusko. The Russians advanced twice to the attack, but were repulsed by the Poles, who, however, unfortunately, not contented with the advantages they had gained, abandoned their favourable position on the heights, and pressed on to the attack in their turn. This movement threw the troops into some confusion; and the Russians forming themselves anew, the rout soon became general. The battle, which began at seven in the morning, did not end till noon. Kosciusko flew from rank to rank, and was continually in the hottest part of the engagement. At length he fell; and a Cossac, who did not know him in the peasant's dress which he constantly wore, wounded him from behind with a lance. He recovered, and advanced a few steps, but was again knocked down by another Cossac, who was preparing to give him a mortal blow, when his arm was stopped by a Russian officer, who is said to have been general Chrnazow, to whose wife Kosciusko had, a short time before, politely given leave of departure from Warsaw to join her husband. The unfortunate Kosciusko implored the officer, if he wished to render him a service, to allow the soldier to put an end to his existence; but the latter chose rather to make him a prisoner. The Polish infantry defended themselves with a bravery proportioned to that of their general, and fought with a degree of valour almost approaching to fury.

The Russians under General Ferfen soon afterwards summoned Warsaw to surrender; and, on being refused, after the junction of the different corps under Ferfen, Dernfeldt, Dernifow, and Suwarow, proceeded, on the 4th of November, to attack the suburbs of Praga, or Prague, separated from Warsaw by the Vistula, which was defended by more than a hundred pieces of cannon disposed upon thirty-three batteries. The Rus-

sians succeeded in their assault, and the Polish generals found themselves unable to oppose, with 10,000 soldiers (which was the whole of their force), the united attack of 50,000 men. After a severe conflict of eight hours, the resistance on the part of the Poles ceased; but the massacre of the sanguinary Suwarrow continued for two hours longer; and the pillage lasted till noon on the following day. Five thousand Poles were computed to have been slain in the assault; the remainder were either imprisoned or dispersed. The citizens were compelled to lay down their arms; and their houses were plundered by the merciless Russians, who, after the battle had ceased nearly ten hours, about nine o'clock at night, set fire to the town, and again began to massacre the inhabitants. Nine thousand persons, unarmed men, defenceless women, and harmless infants, perished either in the flames or by the sword, and nearly the whole of the suburb was reduced to ashes. In the whole of this siege it is computed that not less than 30,000 Poles lost their lives.

The city being thus reduced under the power of the Russians, the king was for a short time restored to a kind of mock authority, by the supreme council remitting into his hands that which it had exercised. On the 9th of November, the Russian general made his triumphal entry into Warsaw, in which the streets were lined with his troops, and the inhabitants, shut up in their houses, observed a melancholy silence. The chief magistrate delivered him the keys of the bridge of the suburb, after which he received the compliments of the king; and, on the 10th, went with much pomp to the castle, to pay his respects to his majesty. To complete the whole of this execrable scene, the first of December was set apart for a solemn thanksgiving, and *Te Deum* was sung for the triumph of barbarous oppression.

In the mean time Kosciusko was under surgical care at Nozcylack, where the utmost atten-

tion was paid to his recovery. He was afterwards sent to Petersburg, under a very powerful military escort, and was confined in the fortress there, till the death of Catharine II., when the late emperor, who on several occasions shewed great liberality towards the persecuted Poles, set him at liberty, assigned him a pension, and allowed him his choice, either to return to his own country, or go to America. Kosciusko preferred the latter, and arrived safely in the asylum which he chose. On his way thither he passed through England, and was received with the warmest welcome and congratulation by all the friends of freedom. He has since left America, and is said to be at present in France.

On the 20th of December, 1794, a courier arrived from the empress, demanding the arrestation of Count Ignatius Potocki, and several of the other patriots, whom she ordered to be sent to Petersburg. The same messenger brought a command from the empress to the unhappy monarch of Poland to repair to Grodno, who, in obedience to the summons, set off from his capital on the 7th of January, 1795.

The unfortunate king was afterwards removed to Petersburg, where he had a palace and a suitable pension assigned him, and where he died, February 11, 1798. With him ended the kingdom of Poland.

The different events that have occurred since this period, in the history of this unfortunate country, have, of necessity, been introduced into some of the preceding articles of this chapter, in order to explain the nature of its present form of government, constitution, &c. The motives which induced the emperor of the French to form a part of ancient Poland into this Grand Duchy we must leave for time to develope; but the political importance of the country may soon be expected to revive, should it continue for any length of time under the dominion of the king of Saxony.

CHAP. X.

THE GERMAN STATES;

OR, THE

CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE,

FORMERLY CALLED THE

German Empire,

SECTION I.

General and Preliminary Observations respecting Germany—Its Name—Situation and Extent—Boundaries—Divisions, &c. &c.

SO extraordinary have been the changes of territory and revolutions of governments in the different states of Germany, within the last few years, and so unsettled is their actual condition, that its geographical description is the most perplexed of any region on the globe; the grand divisions or circles, into which it was formerly divided, being now interwoven with each other, and no other rational distribution having yet appeared.

Name.—A great part of the country which for several centuries has been distinguished by the name of Germany, was formerly a part of ancient Gaul. The inhabitants were called by various names, such as the Allemanni, Teutones, &c. The name *Germany*, though generally allowed to be of modern origin, has been attributed to many fanciful derivations. The most probable is, that it is compounded of *ger*, or *gar*, and *man*, which, in the ancient Teutonic language, signifies “a warlike man.”

Situation and Extent.—The territory which was lately distinguished by the appellation of the German Empire, is situated between 45 and 55 degrees of north latitude, and 6 and 19 of east longitude. The different states and kingdoms comprehended within its modern limits extend about 600 British miles in length, from the isle of Rugen in the north, to the southern limits of the Tyrol. The breadth from the Rhine to the eastern boundary of Silesia, is about 500 British miles. It formerly extended beyond the Vistula, about 200 miles more to the east.

Divisions.—This extensive country was formerly divided into the Upper, or Southern, and Lower, or Northern Germany. The emperor Maximilian subdivided it into ten great circles; which division was confirmed by the diet of Nuremberg in 1552: but the circle of Burgundy, or the Netherlands, being afterwards detached from the empire, Germany was geographically delineated as comprehending the nine following circles:

		Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.
Northern Circles.	Upper Saxony	31,200	Dresden, Berlin
	Lower Saxony	17,600	Hanover, Hamburg
	Westphalia	20,000	Liege, Munster
Middle Circles	Upper Rhine	8,000	Cassel, Frankfort
	Lower Rhine	6,848	Manheim, Mentz
	Franconia	7,880	Nuremberg
Southern Circles	Swabia	11,200	Stutgard, Augsburg
	Bavaria	12,368	Munich, Ratisbon
	Austria	44,528	Vienna, Gratz

As has been already observed, these divisions are now entirely abolished, by the recent political events that have taken place on the continent; and this country is principally divided between the following electors, who have been lately honoured by the French usurper with the titles of Kings; viz. SAXONY, WESTPHALIA, BAVARIA, WURTEMBERG, and BADEN. These kingdoms, with numerous other small principalities and states which are, in a great measure, dependent upon them, form what is termed the CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE, established by the treaty of Posen, in 1806, of which the French emperor is the Grand Protector. We shall now proceed to furnish our readers with a particular description of each of these states separately, deferring the general outline of natural geography, &c. of the whole to the next section.

KINGDOM

KINGDOM OF SAXONY.

Among the present ruling powers of Germany, the king of Saxony must be regarded as one of the chief. His territories extend in length from east to west about 220 British miles, and in breadth from north to south about 130. They are bounded on the north by Prussia (Brandenburg), on the east by the duchy of Silesia, on the south by Bohemia and the kingdom of Bavaria, and on the west by that of Westphalia. The country was anciently governed by dukes, sprung from the kings who defended themselves with such valour against France.

The name is derived from the ancient nation of the Saxons, who in the middle ages extended themselves over the greatest part of the north and west of Germany.

The climate is so favourable, that wine is made in Misnia. The face of the country, especially towards the south, is beautifully diversified; and its richness between Meissen and Dresden is said to rival that of the north of Italy. The land is well cultivated, and produces all kinds of grain and vegetables, with hops, flax, hemp, tobacco, saffron, madder, &c.

The manufactures of Saxony are thread, linen, laces, ribbands, velvets, carpets, paper, colours derived from various minerals, glass and porcelain of remarkable beauty, and various works in serpentine stone. The country is also rich in native products, both agricultural and mineral.

The language and literature of Saxony are the most distinguished in all Germany, most of the writers who have refined the language having been born or having resided in this country.

The religion is the Protestant, which was here introduced by Luther; and there are two bishoprics, Merseburg and Naumburg. The whole country is divided into parishes, and these again into spiritual inspections and consistories, all subordinate to the ecclesiastical court of Dresden.

This kingdom has, independent of the grand duchy of Warsaw, an extent of 736 German square miles, and 2,400,000 inhabitants. In point of population it is the second state of the Confederation of the Rhine, of which it was admitted a member by the treaty of Posen on the 11th of December 1806, when the electorate of Saxony was raised to a kingdom by the ambitious projector of that league. But no accession of power has been gained with this new title; nor is the constitution changed. The royal titles of the new monarch are, "By the grace of God, King of Saxony, and Lusatia, Grand Duke of Warsaw, Margrave of Meissen, &c. &c. There is a general assembly of the states, consisting, 1. Of the deputies of the

chapters of Meissen, Merseburg, and Naumburg Zeitz; of the universities of Leipzig and Wittenburg; and of several small principalities and counties, which are partly Saxon fiefs: 2. Of the deputies of those nobles who are land-owners: and, 3. Of the deputies of 128 towns. The total number generally amounts to 540. They meet every sixth year to vote new taxes, or the continuation of the old ones, and to deliberate about the most important concerns of the country. But there is a select and also a grand committee of the states (the former consisting of 40 deputies of the nobility, and 21 deputies of the eight principal towns; the latter, of 60 deputies of the nobility, and 31 deputies of the twenty principal towns), which meet more frequently. The division of the country remains as it was, with this single exception, that the electoral circle has taken the name of the Circle of Wittenburg.

The Saxon army, amounting to 33,000 infantry, and 7000 cavalry, is solely recruited by volunteers; and no foreigners are admitted. The terms of engagement, which is for eight years, are scrupulously adhered to.

The revenues of the kingdom of Saxony amount to 10,000,000 of dollars annually, arising from the demesnes of the crown, profits of the mint and post-office, mines, forests, salt-springs, and from the direct and indirect taxes paid by the subject. The national debt, which in 1764 exceeded 40 millions, is now only 19 millions, 4 of which have been incurred by the war of 1806, and the assistance given to the French.

Compared with other states of equal size and population, the kingdom of Saxony enjoys a proud pre-eminence in agricultural and commercial industry, in the cultivation of literature and the arts, and in the perfection of particular branches of knowledge relating to mineralogy and metallurgy. The net produce of the mines of Freyburg, from the year 1529 to 1801, has been 19,162,849 dollars; and out of this sum the last four years only, from 1791 to 1801, produced 3,217,293 dollars. The Saxons may certainly be pronounced the most enlightened and polished among the Germans.

The marquisate of LUSATIA, which, since the beginning of the 16th century has formed a part of this electorate, was ceded to it in consideration of a large sum of money which the elector had advanced to the emperor in his wars with the Bohemians. It is situated between Saxony Proper and the Duchy of Silesia: its extent has already been mentioned in the dimensions of this kingdom; and its superficial contents in square miles will be found in the subsequent table. The marquisate is divided into Upper and Lower. Upper Lusatia abounds in mountains and hills; there

there are also numerous bogs and marshes to be found in it. Lower Lusatia, on the contrary, has a great number of fine woods, the very heaths being provided with it, even to exuberance; together with abundance of all the necessaries, and many of the luxuries, of life. The inhabitants, who are mostly Germans, enjoy an important means of subsistence in the numerous and flourishing manufactures of linen and woollen stuffs.

The kingdom of Saxony is now (as formerly when an electorate) subdivided as follows:

	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Circles of { Meissen Wittenburg Thuringia Leipsic Erzgebürg Voigtland Neustadt	10,170	1,704,000	Dresden Wittenburg Langensalza Leipsic Freyberg Plauen Neustadt
Bishoprics of { Merseburg Naumburg			Merseburg Naumburg
Principality of Querfurt			Querfurt
Marquisate of Lusatia			Budessin
	1,610	400,000	
	11,780	2,104,000*	

Besides the above, which with propriety may be said to form the hereditary provinces of this monarchy, there are numerous other principalities and states, whose princes, though they depend upon this kingdom and their more potent neighbours, and must be careful not to give them any umbrage, are almost as arbitrary in their own dominions as the Grand Seignior himself. The principal of those which are allied to, or claim the protection of, this monarch, are as follow:

	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
The principality of Saxe-Weimar and Eisenach	480	106,000	Weimar
Princip. of Saxe-Gotha with part of Altenburg	830	165,000	{ Gotha Altenburg
Principalities of the house of Saxe-Coburg	352	70,000	Coburg
Principality of Anhalt	800	115,000	Dessau
Schwartzburg	721	100,000	Arnstadt
County of Stolberg, subject to its Counts	192	24,000	Stolberg

Together with several others. But it would be a vain waste of the reader's attention, and, indeed, only render his knowledge more confused and imperfect, if it were practicable, to give even a short outline of the territories of each of the three hundred petty princes which are said to crowd the labyrinth of Germany; princes whose territories, under a sole monarchy, would sink into the geographical obscurity of those of a peer or landed gentleman; and states which may be more aptly sought in a gazetteer, or in the laboured pages of the German geographer Busching.

If the writer last mentioned, with some other

late German geographers, are to be credited, this kingdom is, by nature, not only the richest country in Germany, but in all Europe. They represent it as containing 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and nearly 3000 villages. The chief places are,

1. *Dresden*, the capital of the kingdom, and one of the handsomest cities in all Germany, situated at the confluence of the rivers Elbe and Weseritz. The former divides it into two parts, called the Old and New Towns, which are united by a fine bridge, 685 paces in length. This city is very ancient, having been originally built contiguous to an immense castle erected by Charlemagne in 808. The houses are mostly built of free-stone, and nearly of the same height: the streets are broad, straight, and well paved and lighted. The squares are spacious, the royal palaces magnificent, and the public buildings numerous and elegant. The churches are in general ancient and venerable edifices, and add greatly to the beauty of the city. There are also many celebrated charitable foundations and humane institutions. Dresden is the school of Germany for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, foundries for balls and cannon, and its extensive foreign and inland traffic, carried on by means of the commercial river Elbe. The library, cabinets, gardens, &c. belonging to the royal palace, are very curious and splendid. There are also extensive barracks, a royal menagerie, extensive China works, with several other flourishing manufactories, and a small college. By the latest accounts this city is said to contain upwards of 60,000 inhabitants.

2. *Leipsic*, or *Leipsig*, an ancient and famous city, the capital of the circle of the same name, is seated on a plain near the river Pleyss, 44 miles W.N.W. of Dresden. It is a handsome place, neat and regularly built: the streets are clean, very commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted at night with upwards of 700 lamps. It has large and well-built suburbs, with handsome gardens, between which and the town is a pleasant walk, overshadowed with lime trees, that was laid out in 1702. Mulberry trees are also planted in the town ditches; but the fortifications seem rather calculated for the inhabitants to walk on than for defence. Here are six Lutheran churches, one for the Calvinists, and a chapel for the Roman Catholics, liberty of conscience having, for a number of years, been allowed in this city; and indeed, to the honour of the imperial protector of the Rhenish Confederation, is now tolerated throughout the whole of Germany.

* Pinkerton, 1806. Hoeck, in 1809, says 2,400,000.

The university has long been famed throughout this kingdom, and is still in great repute. It consists of six handsome colleges, two Latin schools, a German literary society, and one for the encouragement of the arts. The university library contains about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is also another library, which belongs to the city, and which has been, at various times, collected by the magistrates, containing upwards of 36,000 volumes, and near 2000 manuscripts, together with cabinets of urns, antiques, medals, and different curiosities of nature and art. This city carries on a considerable trade in domestic and foreign articles, and has manufactories of stuffs, velvets, cloths, stockings, and linens. Here are held three great annual fairs, celebrated throughout all Germany, which last a fortnight each, and are kept at the beginning of the year, at Easter, and at Michaelmas. The town-house of this city has but an indifferent appearance; but the exchange is a noble edifice. Busching stated that here were 436 merchant houses, and 102 manufactories of linen, paper, &c. in 1802; and that the inhabitants amounted to more than 30,000.

3. *Wittenburg*, or *Wittenburg*, an ancient town, situated on the river Elbe, over which there is a ferry, 55 miles N.N.W. of Dresden. It is not a large place, neither are the buildings very elegant, having suffered most severely in the German war of 1760, when it was besieged by the Austrians. The chief glory of this place is its famous university, in which the immortal Luther was professor. Here is also a consistory, or civil court of jurisprudence; and an old castle, or citadel, formerly the residence of the electors of this circle, in the chapel belonging to which is the plain tomb of Luther.

4. *Meissen*, a considerable manufacturing town, most advantageously situated on the river Elbe, at the mouth of the small river Neisse, 14 miles N.W. of Dresden. It is celebrated for a most extensive manufactory of china and earthenware, and another of superfine cloth. The houses are neatly built, and the streets are clean and spacious. The inhabitants are polite and hospitable, and speak the purest language in Germany.

5. *Budissen*, or *Bautzen*, the capital of Lusatia, is pleasantly seated upon the river Spree, 30 miles E.N.E. of Dresden. It is the seat of the government of this marquisate; and, though small, is neatly built, chiefly of free-stone: but its trade or manufactures are inconsiderable.

6. *Gorlitz*, a considerable manufacturing town, also in Lusatia, situated on the Neisse, 50 miles west of Dresden. Though in point of rank it is only the second town in the country, yet for

size, population, and commerce, it is inferior to none.

7. *Zittau*, another considerable town upon the Neisse, 17 miles south of the last-mentioned. The principal business of the inhabitants is the brewing of beer; but here are, besides, upwards of 100 master clothiers, and 1000 weavers employed. The merchants chiefly trade with those of Prague and Leipsic, and extend their commerce as far as Holland. The houses are well-built; and there are several handsome public edifices, particularly a fine library, the largest in Lusatia, which is open for the public twice a week; and at a small distance from it is a beautiful orphan-house.

8. *Weimar*, the capital of the princes of Saxe-Weimar, is pleasantly situated on both sides of the river Ilm, and is a neat, well-built town. Its chief ornament is the palace, where the princes reside, which contains, among other things, a fine hall, a valuable library, and a gallery of paintings. This town stands 40 miles S.S.W. of Leipsic.

The other towns of this kingdom and its dependencies are numerous, but uninteresting. To enter into a particular description of them would be merely to recapitulate what has been said of the last-mentioned. They are for the most part neatly built; and their most prominent feature is, in general, the castle or palace of some petty prince.

KINGDOM OF WESTPHALIA.

This extensive kingdom, which, since its first establishment, has gradually extended itself, by cruel usurpation, over the whole of the north-west part of Germany, is bounded on the north by the German Ocean and the duchy of Holstein; on the east by Prussia (Pomerania, Brandenburg), and the kingdom of Saxony; on the south by that of Bavaria and Baden; and on the west by the Rhine, which separates it from France and the *ci-devant* kingdom of Holland.

From the present very unsettled state of Germany, it is found absolutely impossible to present an accurate account of the length, breadth, and other particulars of this kingdom; and, as we do not wish to mislead, we must leave its precise delineation, in these respects, to future geographers, who, should peace again deign to visit bleeding Europe, will then be enabled to procure accurate information on these topics.

As far as can, with any degree of accuracy, be defined, this kingdom includes nearly the circles of Westphalia and Lower Saxony, together with a considerable part of those of the Upper and Lower Rhine. The chief divisions are as follow:

Circle of Westphalia.

Circle of Lower Saxony.

L.Rhine. Up.Rhine.

	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Principality of East Friesland and Territory of Harlinger }	864	100,000	Emden Leer
Principality of Minden	496	60,000	Minden
Part of the Duchy of Cleves*	400	55,000	Wesel
County of Mark	480	124,000	Hamm
Lingen	108	16,000	Lingen
Tecklenburg	100	14,000	Tecklenburg
Ravensburg	272	35,000	Ravensburg
Principality, late Bishopric of			
Paderborn	1,328	120,000	Paderborn
Munster	1,360	200,000	Munster
Verden	192	30,000	Verden
Osnaburg	896	125,000	Osnaburg
Duchy of Oldenburg and Delmanhorst }	1,440	135,000	Oldenburg Delmanhorst
Territories of the house of			
Orange Nassau	800	180,000	Dillenburg
County of Lippe	560	70,000	Detmold
Seauenburg	384	50,000	Rinteln
Wied	164	26,000	Runkel
Duchy of Arensburg	528	36,000	Meppen
Cray	88	9,000	Cray
Duchy of Magdeburg	1,552	290,000	Magdeburg
Principality of Halberstadt and Lordship of Derenburg	480	100,000	Halberstadt
Principality, late Bishopric of Hildesheim	640	90,000	Hildesheim
Duchy, late Prin. of Calenburg	1,248	200,000	Hanover
Luneburg		230,000	Luneburg
Electorate Duch. of Saxe-Lau- enburg, with the			
Hanover Territ. of Hadan	512	70,000	Lauenburg
Duchy of Bremen	1,600	200,000	Bremen
Brunswick	1,064	202,000	Brunswick
Mecklenburg			Schwerin
Schwerin and Strelitz	4,800	400,000	New Strelitz
Landgrave of Hesse Cassel	4,222	500,000	Cassel
Darmstadt	1,120	250,000	Darmstadt
Principality of Fulda†	768	90,000	Fulda
Territory of Nassau	700	90,000	Usingen
County of Waldeck	576	75,000	Corbach
Duchy of Westphalia	1,120	100,000	Brilon
Part of the Electorate of Mentz	208	37,000	Gernsheim
Principality of Aschaffenburg	272	45,000	Aschaffenburg

The above-mentioned, together with several others of smaller dimensions, by far too tedious to detail, form, in the most extensive sense, this monarchy, which, at present, is under the dominion of a brother of the French emperor; but several of the above-mentioned are only nominally comprehended within its jurisdiction, particularly those of Hesse Darmstadt, Mecklenburg, &c.

The name of this kingdom is evidently derived from the ancient circle of that name, which, at its first formation, constituted nearly the whole of the kingdom. The term *Westphalia* is said to be originally derived from the people denominated the *Falii*, inhabiting the banks of the

Weser, or *western* river. In the northern parts the air is cold and damp, arising, in a great measure, from the numerous marshes which intersect the whole of this part of the country. In the middle provinces the climate is less severe, and not subject to such long continued rains; while the southern divisions vie in luxuriancy and fertility with the fruitful plains of Saxony. The principal provinces of this kingdom, alluded to in the above table, are the following.

EAST FRIESLAND, which is seated along the coast of the German Ocean, adjoining the *ci-devant* kingdom of Holland, consists chiefly of meadow lands, which produce immense herds of large cattle. From 1744 till the recent humiliation of the Prussian government, this country formed a part of that monarchy, having been seized by Frederic II. when the family of its counts became extinct.

The principality (late bishopric) of OSNABURG, or OSNABRUCK, is about 40 miles long, and from 18 to 24 in breadth. It is divided into seven bailiwicks, and abounds in cattle and hogs, almost half the country being composed of heath lands. The chief occupation of the inhabitants is spinning of yarn, and manufacturing a coarse kind of linen, which is conveyed, in time of peace, by the English, Dutch, and Spaniards, to Guinea and South America. For a number of years this bishopric was an appendage to the house of Hanover. By the treaty of Osnabruck, 1648, it was decided that it should be possessed alternately by a Catholic and a Protestant; the former at the choice of the chapter, but the latter always a prince of the house of Hanover, who was to have the civil and criminal superiority, while the ecclesiastical affairs were administered by the archbishop of Cologne. The revenue amounted to £26,250 sterling; and the last Protestant bishop was the present duke of York. Since its conquest by the French, it has been secularized, and added in perpetuity to this kingdom.

The territories of the late electorate of HANOVER, in Lower Saxony, extended in length, from east to west, about 180 British miles, and nearly 100 in breadth, exclusive of the detached duchy of Grubenhagen and county of Calenburg, which is about 80 miles in length, and 30 in its greatest breadth. It is needless to add that Hanover was the hereditary property of the British sovereigns, from whom it has been wrested by France; and, in consequence of the new territorial arrange-

* By the treaty of Luneville the Rhine became the grand boundary between Germany and France, previous to which a considerable part of the circles of Westphalia and the Upper and Lower Rhine were situated to the left of that river; on that account several of the ancient states were divided, being situated on both sides of that noble stream; and the city of Cleves, being situated on the left of the Rhine, now pertains to France, while a great part of the territory is in this kingdom.

† This principality (formerly a rich bishopric), together with the imperial town of Dortmund, and several small abbeys, were assigned to the prince of Orange, as an indemnity for the office of stadtholder and his domains in Holland.

ments, it is said to be for ever torn from its old proprietors, and added in perpetuity to this monarchy.

The aspect of the country is plain, partaking somewhat of the sandy nature of Brandenburg, except in the south, where rise the lofty and picturesque mountains of the Hartz. There is plenty of wood; and the agricultural products are various and abundant. Bees are particularly tended. Horses, cattle, and sheep, are numerous; and game are far from being rare.

The mineralogy is rich, consisting of silver, copper, lead, iron, cobalt, and zinc; with marble, slate, coal, turf, and lime-stone, the last particularly from the hill of Kalkberg near Luneburg.

The manufactures and commerce of this electorate were, till lately, considerable, in metals from the Hartz, linen, cotton, some broad cloths, &c. The chief exports are metals, coarse linens, timber, peat, with some cattle and grain.

The religion is the Lutheran: there are about 750 parish churches, with seven superintendants. The university of Gottingen, founded by George the Second, is a noble literary institution.

The revenue of this electorate amounted to £962,500 sterling; while the military force consisted of upwards of 20,000 men.

The late duchy (now principality) of BRUNSWICK WOLFENBUTTE affords a curious specimen of German geography, being itself enclosed in the electorate of Hanover, while the principality (formerly a bishopric subject to Prussia) of Hildensheim, and the country of Halberstadt, pervade the centre of Wolfenbuttle. This territory is fertile in corn and pasture, and has mines of copper, lead, and iron. By the conquest of Prussia, and death of the reigning duke, who was killed in the battle of Jena, while bravely heading a regiment of cavalry, this country was taken possession of by the French. His successor, however, was suffered to retain a part of these dominions, with the title of Duke of Brunswick Oels; but he taking an active part in the insurrection of the north of Germany, in favour of Austria, against France, in 1809, was obliged, by the unfortunate termination of that campaign, to abandon his native country, and seek refuge in England; and the whole of these territories have been annexed to the kingdom of Westphalia.

The duchy of MECKLENBURG, situated on the coast of the Baltic, to the east of the duchy of Holstein in Denmark. It is divided into two parts, known by the additions of SCHWERIN and CUSTRO, full of lakes, heaths, and marshes; and the soil being sandy, produces little except rye and oats. The states, consisting of nobility and burgesses, are assembled yearly to regulate the taxation. The religion is the Lutheran, with six

superintendants; and there is an university at Rostock. The manufactures are wool and tobacco; the exports, by Lubeck and Hamburgh, are grain, flax, hemp, hops, wax, honey, cattle, butter, cheese, fruits, feathers, dried geese, timber, &c. The branch of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, the ruling family, began in the end of the 17th century, and possesses Ratzburg, Stargard, and other provinces. The princes of this house have the absolute right of sovereignty within their own territories, and are only nominally subject to this crown.

The landgrave of HESSIA was of considerable extent. The ruling state was denominated Hesse Cassel, so called from the capital. This territory is about 80 British miles in length, and nearly the same in breadth. Its military force was about 12,000. The face of the country is generally mountainous; but there are many pleasant vales, sometimes containing vineyards, and fields fertile in corn and pasturage. It abounds in game and fish; and there are many fossils and minerals: the sands of the Eder contain particles of gold; and there was formerly a mine of that metal, but of small account, near Frankenburg. There are also found silver, copper, lead, alum, vitriol, coal, fine clays, with veins of marble and alabaster, and some medicinal waters. There were formerly states of three orders; nobles, clergy, and burgesses. The religion is the reformed. The universities are those of Marburg and Rinteln, and that of Giessen belonging to Hesse Darmstadt, ruled by another branch of the family. It has some trade from the natural products; the manufactures are of linen, cloth, hats, stockings, &c.

By the treaty of Presburg, the reigning prince of this house was raised to the dignity of an elector of the German empire; but having afterwards incurred the displeasure of Buonaparte, he was driven from his dominions, and Hesse Cassel became annexed to the kingdom of Westphalia, of which its chief town Cassel has been made the capital. The reigning prince of Hesse Darmstadt is, however, acknowledged under this monarchy, and considered as one of the princes of the confederacy.

The duchy of WESTPHALIA, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, to the south of Munster, is about 40 miles long, and 30 broad, and is a mountainous district, full of woods, but moderately fertile. It is divided into three parts, and was formerly subject to the archbishops and electors of Cologne, who governed it by marshals; but when that archbishopric was secularized, it was annexed to this kingdom.

No accredited accounts having yet appeared relative to the revenue of this kingdom, we are precluded

precluded from furnishing our readers with any statements on this subject. The army is estimated at upwards of 60,000 men, exclusive of considerable bodies which are retained by the inferior princes.

The chief towns throughout this widely extended region are,

1. *Cassel*, the seat of the government and capital of the kingdom of Westphalia. It is situated upon the river Fulda, 40 miles to the south of the city of Paderborne, and is divided by the river into the Old and New Towns: the latter is a handsome and well-built city, chiefly composed of modern buildings, arranged upon a regular plan, and forming several elegant and spacious streets. The public buildings are magnificent, particularly the castle, or palace, formerly the residence of the princes of Hesse Cassel, which commands a most extensive prospect, and has delightful gardens, with a curious cabinet of natural and artificial curiosities. This city is not remarkable as a place of much trade, though it has some manufactures of coarse linens and woollens for home consumption. The inhabitants are estimated at about 25,000.

2. *Hamburgh*.—The city of Hamburgh, after Vienna and Berlin, is the third city of Germany, and is supposed to contain 100,000 inhabitants, or by Hoeck's account 95,000, while no other, except Dresden and Frankfort on the Maine, contain much above 30,000. It was fortified by Charlemagne, A.D. 808. The Elbe is here, including the islands, near a mile broad; and, on the other side of the city, the Alster forms a basin, chiefly used in parties of pleasure. The houses are rather commodious than elegant; and there are few fine streets, the population being overcrowded on account of the fortifications, which are built in the old Dutch taste, with spacious ramparts, planted with trees. The principal streets of the old part of the town, have long and broad canals formed by the Elbe, which are regularly filled by the tides. The form of government is aristocratic, being ruled by a senate consisting of 37 persons. The religion is the Lutheran; and, including the territories, the clergy amount to 53. There are considerable breweries, and works for refining sugar, with some manufactories of cloth. Formerly the trade chiefly consisted of linens, woollens, wine, sugar, coffee, spices, metals, tobacco, timber, leather, corn, dried fish, furs, &c. The bank was founded in 1619; and the numerous libraries do honour to the taste of the inhabitants. Its chief dependencies are the river of Alster, the bailliage of Ham, some isles and lowlands on the Elbe; and, besides some districts acquired from Holstein, the bailliage of Ritzebuttel, on the north of the

duchy of Bremen, including the port of Cuxhaven, and the isle called Neuwerk, situated opposite to that port.

Hamburgh must now be regarded as the chief city of the Hanseatic league, though that honour was formerly ascribed to Lubeck. This celebrated league is one of the most remarkable phenomena in the history of Europe. During three centuries it was the first maritime power, dethroning the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and ruling paramount in the Baltic and German seas. Hamburgh has, however, long been under the entire controul of France; and the senate is only the phantom of a legislature.

Towards the middle of the 13th century more than 60 towns situated on the Rhine entered into a perpetual alliance to defend themselves against the tyranny of the nobles, and the general anarchy. The consequence of this alliance was, that by united interests they formed, as it were, one *Hanse*, or corporation, whence the name of the Hanseatic league. Bremen and Lubeck, already celebrated for their commerce in the northern seas, soon acceded to the alliance, and were followed by Hamburgh, several cities in Holland, and on the south of the Baltic. In 1364 there was a solemn assembly of the deputies at Cologne, when the league was consolidated by every art of policy, and even some inland cities were admitted to its participation. This singular republic, without any territory, waged successful war against Denmark, and placed Albert of Mecklenburg upon the throne of Sweden. Norway fell into the vilest subjection, and Bergen may be said to have been garrisoned by the Hanseatic league.

One of the most important factories of the Hanseatic league was at Bruges in Flanders, and another in London, where it stifled the industry of the nation. In 1551 it was proved, that this factory had exported 4400 pieces of broad cloth, while all the English merchants had only exported 1100. The league maintained some degree of vigour till the end of the 16th century; but at present the Hanseatic league comprises only three cities, Lubeck, Hamburgh, and Bremen; and in the definitive treaty of indemnities, 25th February, 1803, they are acknowledged as Hanseatic cities, with the guarantee of their jurisdiction and perpetual neutrality. But the French ruler, who regards neutralities only so long as they answer his purposes, has violated its privileges, and filled its barracks and arsenals with French troops; so that it may now be fairly considered a part of this monarchy.

Its trade and commerce has been nearly annihilated by the recent decrees of the maritime powers of Europe.

3. *Bremen*, a large city, the capital of a duchy of the same name. It is finely situated for trade, about 20 miles from the mouth of the river *Weser*. It is tolerably well built, after the Dutch plan, having several canals intersecting the streets. Previous to the recent restrictions on the trade of the continent, this was a place of great commercial consequence, being one of the three Hanseatic towns acknowledged by Buonaparte. This city, with its duchy, was purchased by George I. in 1715, for 700,000 rix-dollars, and annexed to the electorate of Hanover, under whose protection it continued till the recent overthrow of the German empire. The inhabitants do not exceed 15,000.

4. *Embsen*, a large and commercial city, the capital of East Friesland. It is seated upon a fine bay formed at the mouth of the river *Ems*, and is divided into three parts, the New Town, the Old Town, and the suburbs. The former is chiefly built of stone, in the modern style; but the whole city lies low, and the climate is not reckoned wholesome. The population does not exceed 10,000 souls.

5. *Munster*, a rich and populous city, the capital of the principality of the same name, situated upon the river *Aa*, 77 miles S.W. of Bremen. The houses are for the most part built of free-stone, and the streets are spacious and well paved; but the principal ornament of the city is the cathedral, a venerable edifice, which contains several fine monuments.

6. *Minden*, a considerable trading town, situated on the river *Weser*, 37 miles S.W. of Hanover. The town is ancient, and indifferently built; but the traffic is considerable in coarse woollen and linen goods, and in the natural produce of the country.

7. *Osnaburg*, or *Osnabruck*, an ancient city, capital of the principality of the same name, seated upon the river *Haze*, 75 miles west of Hanover. It is indifferently built; but the cathedral is a fine venerable edifice. The chief manufactures of the place are the stuffs so well known by the name of this town: it is also noted for the excellence of its beer.

8. *Hanover*, a well-built, populous city of *Calenberg*, in Lower Saxony, situated on the river *Leine*, 58 miles south-east of Bremen. It was first mentioned in the 12th century, and is slightly fortified, containing about 15,500 inhabitants. The river divides it into two parts, called Old and New Hanover: in the latter is a valuable library, particularly rich in books of history and politics; it also contains the late electoral palace, which having been destroyed by fire, was rebuilt in 1741 with great magnificence. The state-house is likewise an elegant structure. Here are

three parish-churches, three hospitals, a poor-house, and about 1200 houses, some of which are very large and handsome buildings. This city boasts some valuable manufactures of lace, stuffs, stockings, ribbands, &c.; a considerable trade in the tanneries, and in brewing a species white beer.

9. *Gottingen*, a small neat town, in the late electorate of Hanover, chiefly famous for its handsome university, founded here by George II. of England, in 1734, which has already acquired a very distinguished reputation. The library called the *Bulowean*, which is rapidly increasing, is one of the finest in the kingdom. This university also comprises a fine observatory, a physic garden, an anatomical theatre, and one for the obstetric art, together with a royal society of sciences, and a royal German society. Belonging to it is a large and splendid church, with a peculiar pastor, and a new and stately structure of stone, the ground-floor of which serves as a hall for public lectures.

10. *Lunenbourg*, a large fortified town, the capital of a duchy of the same name, formerly subject to Hanover. It is strongly fortified, and contains about 1300 houses, and 9000 inhabitants. The chief public edifices are three parish-churches, the ducal palace, three hospitals, the town-house, the salt magazine (formerly a church), the anatomical theatre, and the academy. The *Salza*, constituting a distinct part of the town, is walled in, and has a distinct magistracy. In this part vast quantities of salt are boiled, and rendered fit for use, which constitutes the chief traffic of the place.

11. *Zell*, or *Celle*, the capital of another duchy included in the late electorate of Hanover, which devolved to that house by marriage in 1705. It is surrounded by ditches and ramparts, on which are planted chesnut and lime-trees. It is a small town, with a few artificers, particularly in gold and silver. The houses are old, and of but mean appearance. The castle, which is walled and moated in, was formerly the residence of the dukes, and was repaired by order of his Britannic majesty, for the residence of his unfortunate sister, the queen of Denmark, who died here.

12. *Brunswick*, the capital of the duchy of the same name, an ancient city, pleasantly situated on the river *Oeker*. The houses, in general, are but indifferently built; but the public buildings are neat and handsome. The manufactures are considerable; and the population is estimated at 22,000 souls.

13. *Wolfenbottle*, a considerable town of the duchy last mentioned. It is tolerably well built, and contains the elegant palace, or chateau of the

the ancient dukes, in which is an extensive library, containing upwards of 150,000 printed volumes, together with valuable manuscripts, and a cabinet of natural curiosities. The inhabitants of this town do not exceed 15,000.

14. *Schwerin*, an ancient city, the capital of the duchy of Mecklenburg, situated on a pleasant lake of the same name, which nearly surrounds the town, and on an island in which the ducal palace and gardens are finely situated, and have a communication with the town by a draw-bridge. The houses are well built, and the streets clean and spacious, but the chief ornament of the city is the venerable Gothic cathedral, which is a stately edifice with a handsome spire.

15. *Rostock*, another and the largest town of the duchy last quoted, very eligibly situated on the river Varne, near a fine bay in the Baltic, which here forms a good harbour. Here are three neat parish churches, a good university, and several fine public buildings. The houses in general are well built, and the trade is very considerable, particularly with Sweden.

16. *Wismar*, a strongly fortified sea-port of the same duchy, well defended by a citadel. Besides six churches, it has a consistory, with a grammar school under eight masters. The buildings are in general good, and the trade considerable, the harbour being very capacious.

17. *Dusseldorf*, an ancient city and capital of the duchy of Berg. It is situated on the river Dussel, at its confluence with the Rhine, 10 miles north-west of Cologne. The buildings are in general respectable, and the streets spacious and well-paved; but there are no public edifices worthy particular description. The inhabitants exceed 10,000 in number.

18. *Paderborne*, a considerable city, the capital of a bishopric of the same name, and formerly one of the Hanse Town, 43 miles E.S.E. of Munster. The city contains little remarkable, save the cathedral, which is an ancient Gothic fabric, under the high altar of which the river Pader rises.

19. *Darmstadt*, the capital of the territories of the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, a handsome town seated on a river of the same name, 18 miles E.S.E. of the city of Mentz. The houses are neat and commodious; and the public buildings, consisting of a handsome college, consistory court, and a noble castle, are splendid and magnificent.

20. *Frankfort on the Maine*, a large, free, and imperial city, so called from its situation on the river Maine, which divides the city into two parts, distinguished by the names of Frankfort and Sachsenhausen. The former of these, being the largest, is divided into twelve wards, and the lat-

ter into two; and both are computed to contain upwards of 3000 lofty houses, and 35,000 inhabitants. The situation of this city is extremely pleasant, being in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country. The fortifications are both regular and solid, surrounded by deep ditches full of water; having all the out-works placed before the gates. When the German empire was in its zenith, in this city the emperors were crowned kings of the Romans. Frankfort is of a circular form, without any suburbs; but the streets are generally narrow, and the houses are chiefly of timber and plaster, covered with slate; though there are some of modern erection, together with all the public buildings, that are handsomely built of a kind of red marble, which has a fine effect. Here are held two great annual fairs, which are greatly attended by merchants from all parts of Germany. The Jews here are a very numerous body, and, till lately, were under very great restrictions.

Besides the above, there are numerous other cities and towns, to enter into a description of which would greatly exceed the limits of this work.

KINGDOM OF BAVARIA.

This kingdom is bounded on the north by those of Saxony and Westphalia; on the east by Austria; on the south by the kingdom of Italy; and on the west by Wirtemberg; being upwards of 200 miles in length, and 150 in breadth. The principal territories comprehended within this monarchy are the following:

	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Duchy of Bavaria	8,320	1,000,000	Munich
Duchy of Upper Palatinate	2,080	200,000	Amberg
Neuburg, &c.	832	100,000	Neuburg
Salzbach	443	50,000	Salzbach
County of Haag	123	18,000	Haag
Principality of Freysingen	288	30,000	Freysing.
Part of the late Bishopric of Passau	64	15,000	Passau
Principality of Ratisbon	160	40,000	Ratisbon
Principality of Bayreuth	1,200	220,000	Bayreuth.
Anspach	1,120	275,000	Anspach.
Bamberg	1,056	200,000	Bamberg.
Wurtzburg	1,392	240,000	Wurtzbu.
Territory of the imperial city of Nuremberg	336	50,000	
County of Tyrol—the Vo-ralberg, and late bishoprics of Trent and Brixen	6,960	650,000	Inspruck. Trent. Brixen.
Circles of Dillingen and Kempten	2,990	127,000	Dillingen. Kempten.
Free and imperial city of Augsburg	—	36,000	

Exclusive of the above, there are a great number of other small dependencies and states, by far too tedious to detail.

Among the principal subdivisions of this kingdom.

dom must be first noticed the duchy of **BAVARIA**, properly so called, which is divided into Upper and Lower, and what is called the Higher Palatinate (or that of Bavaria). The length from north to south is somewhat interrupted, but may be about 125 British miles, and the breadth about 100. The Upper division is, in a great degree, mountainous, and covered with forests, interspersed with large and small lakes: the Lower division is more plain and fertile. There are mines of silver and copper near Podenmais, in the bailiage of Viechtach, and of lead at Reichenenthal, with many quarries of marble, and mineral springs; but the chief mineral riches of Bavaria consist in the salt springs at Traunstein, which pervade mountains of saline earth, like those at Hallen, in the archbishopric of Salzburg, and occupy many people in productive industry. In this duchy they reckon 48 cities, 123 market-towns, 1200 villages, 100 chateaux, 80 convents, and 1500 parishes.

The principalities of **BAYREUTH** and **ANS-PACH**, situated nearly in the centre of Germany, are in some parts mountainous and sandy; but near the Maine yield good corn and wine. The chief mines are of iron; and here are several medicinal springs. Near the Fichtelberg, Bayreuth produces a variety of beautiful marbles, and some curious minerals. The principality of Bayreuth is also known by the name of **CULMBACH**; and with Anspach formed the chief power in Franconia, lately resigned by the sovereign of Prussia.

The county of **TYROL** is situated in the circle of Upper Austria, and, for a length of time, formed a part of the hereditary dominions of that house. It is about 150 miles in length, and 120 in breadth; and contains 12 towns, and 10 villages, which have markets. It is a very mountainous country, and yet it yields as much corn and wine as the inhabitants have occasion for. Here are also profitable salt-pits, medicinal springs, and hot baths. This country was ceded to Bavaria by the late treaty of indemnities; but the inhabitants being unwilling to submit to their new masters, for a length of time made a noble stand against the united arms of Bavaria and France; but, at length, in the beginning of 1810, they were subdued, and the country formally taken possession of.

Bavaria was originally governed by dukes: Leopold, in 882, was the first; and his progeny extend to this day, the present head of that family having been raised to the title of a king by Bonaparte.

The established religion was the Roman Catholic; but it has been recently exchanged for the reformed by the present monarch. The manufac-

tures are but of small account, the chief exports being corn and cattle. The revenue is computed at £2,066,600 sterling; and the military force at 32,000 men.

The Bavarians are not distinguished in literature; but are a vigorous race, adapted to the fatigues of war. There is an university at Ingolstadt, and an academy of science at Munich. The states consist of clergy, nobility, and burghesses.

The chief towns of this kingdom are,

1. *Munich*, a capital, a handsome city, finely situated on the river Iser, 62 miles S.S.E. of Ratisbon. The houses are well built, mostly of stone, and very lofty; and the streets are open and spacious, with canals in many of them. The palace is a very stately edifice, magnificently adorned; besides which there are two others at a short distance. The cabinet of curiosities is very extensive, in which are upwards of 200 marble statues and busts of Roman emperors; and some other antiques, mostly brought from Italy. Besides which, the museum, the library, and the royal gardens, attract the notice of strangers. The cathedral contains 25 chapels, and 30 altars; but the two steeples, and the tomb of one of the emperors, of black marble, adorned with statues of bronze, are the most remarkable things belonging to it. There are many other elegant buildings in this city, both ecclesiastical and civil. The streets are broad and straight, and the market-place is very beautiful. Here are manufactories of linen and woollen cloth, silk, velvet, and tapestry. This is allowed to be the most elegant city in Germany; and is said to contain about 2500 houses, with nearly 40,000 inhabitants.

2. *Ratisbon*, or *Regensburg*, a very ancient city, situated upon the Danube, over which there is a noted bridge of fifteen arches, 350 yards in length. This city, being the residence of a number of nobility and gentry, has several very handsome buildings, particularly six monasteries. The town-house is very magnificent, in the hall of which the ancient diets of the empire were held, from 1662 to the final abolition of the empire, August 2, 1806. This city is an important staple for salt; and large quantities of corn, wood, provisions, &c. are shipped for Vienna. The inhabitants do not exceed 22,000.

3. *Augsburg*, a handsome city, situated near the river Wordach, 30 miles north-west of Munich. In a geographical sense it has been for a length of time recognized as the capital of the circle of Swabia, and is a place of very considerable trade. It is still a free imperial city, governed by its own council, forty-five in number, composed of Protestants and Papists. The public

lic buildings are magnificent; among which the cathedral, a venerable structure, is one of its greatest ornaments: besides this there are six Romish parish-churches, and a smaller number of Lutheran. This city is surrounded by beautiful plains, and large forests abounding with game. It has suffered very severely at different times from the plague. The population exceeds 20,000 souls.

4. *Nuremburg*, an ancient and free city, the capital of the late circle of Franconia. It is situated on the river Pegnitz, which runs through the middle, and divides it into two parts, united together by twelve bridges, six of which are of stone and six of wood. This city stands on a sandy, barren plain; but the industry of the inhabitants has overcome this disadvantage, and rendered the environs fertile and pleasant. The houses are all built of free-stone, generally four or five stories high; and the streets are straight and spacious, in the cleanliness of which, and the neatness of their houses, the inhabitants imitate the Dutch. Among the public buildings, two of the churches, the arsenal, and the council-house, are greatly admired. This city still retains its ancient form of government, which is aristocratical, under the jurisdiction of a grand council consisting of 200 persons. The burgesses are divided into eight grand companies: they are very industrious and excellent workmen in the arts. Their maps, prints, paintings, and engravings are in high estimation, as well as their musical and mathematical instruments; nor are they less curious in clock-work, and in the several manufactures of metal, ivory, wood, and alabaster. The trade in toys made here, and sold in England by the name of Dutch toys, is still very considerable, though the late restrictions upon commerce have greatly injured it. The ancient and formerly superb castle or palace, which belonged to the burgraves of this city and the neighbouring country, is still standing at the extremity of the city, being converted into a public granary and a prison. The different manufactures of Nuremburg are conveyed all over the continent by the merchants who attend the two great annual fairs held there at the spring and fall of the year. The inhabitants, at present, do not exceed 30,000.

5. *Ulm*, another ancient city, the capital of the late circle of Swabia. The houses are old and incommodious, and the streets irregular. The most remarkable edifice is the cathedral, a very lofty building, in which are 63 copper vessels full of water for extinguishing fire. The town-house is also a handsome structure; and there is a fine bridge over the Danube, which greatly favours the trade of the inhabitants, who are about 15,000 in number, and carry on exten-

sive manufactures in linen, fustians, hardware, and wool.

6. *Passau*, a handsome city, the capital of a considerable principality (late bishopric) ceded to this kingdom by the treaty of Presburg, in 1805. It is beautifully seated on the Danube, near the confluence of the Inn and the Iltz with that river. The houses are spacious and well built, and the streets regular and handsome. The cathedral is greatly admired, being reckoned the finest in all Germany. The palace, belonging to the late bishops of this see, is a very fine building.

7. *Wurtzburg*, a fine city situated upon the river Maine, anciently the residence of the kings of Thuringia, and recently of the princely bishops of this lately secularized see. It contains a handsome palace, a cathedral, and several collegiate and parish churches, together with a number of abbeys, convents, and a beautiful and well-regulated hospital, in which are generally from three to four hundred poor men and women.

8. *Bamberg*, situated on the river Pegnitz, 40 miles south of the last-mentioned, was also the capital of a recently secularized bishopric. The houses are lofty, and, in general, arranged, upon a regular plan, into several wide and spacious streets. The public buildings are mostly similar to those of the city last mentioned.

9. *Innsbruck*, the capital of the Tyrol, a large and populous city, finely seated upon the river Inn, 60 miles south of Munich. The houses are well built, and the streets spacious and regular, though not extensive. Without the walls it has several large suburbs, in which are numerous public edifices, palaces, churches, and convents. The population has been estimated at 20,000 souls.

10. *Trent*, a very ancient city, also of the Tyrol, famous for a great ecclesiastical council held here, which began in 1545, and ended in 1563. It contains no streets exactly regular; and the houses are mostly old, and in a very decayed state.

KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG.

This kingdom, which is wholly situated in the ancient circle of Swabia, is greatly inferior, both in size and population, to those previously described. The following is, we believe, a correct statement of its extent and population:

	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Duchy of Wurtemberg . . .	2740	650,000	Stutgard
Territories given to this kingdom, consisting chiefly of the ancient possessions of the house of Austria in the circle of Swabia	603	140,000	{ Elwangen Heilbrun Rottweil
	3343	790,000	

This kingdom derives its name from the castle of Wurtemberg, situated in the bailliage of Canstadt. There were earls of Wurtemberg in the twelfth century; and in 1495, the ducal title was conferred on Earl Everard. In case of the extinction of the family, the house of Austria pretends to the succession; and, till the late surrender of her rights, assumed the title and arms of Wurtemberg.

The revenue is computed at £300,000 sterling, and the military force at 6000 men. This kingdom forms the most considerable and fertile part of Swabia, and is, next to Saxony, one of the best in Germany. The mountains of the Black Forest on the west, and those of the Alb on the south and east, supply timber, fuel, and mines. The chief grain is spelt, and some barley and wheat, with flax, lint, &c.; and the fertility is sufficient even for export. The wine is not so abundant as to prevent the use of cyder. There are mines of silver and copper near Fruedenstadt, and at Konigswart; of silver at Konigstein; and of copper at Guttach, near Hornberg. Iron is also found, but was chiefly brought from Mont Beliard, now lost in the French acquisitions. Cobalt, sulphur, coal, porcelain, clay, marble, alabaster, black amber, &c. with the salt-works at Sulz, constitute the other mineral productions. There are many warm baths and medical springs; and the river Neckar, with the Nemeld, and its other tributary streams, enliven and fertilize the country. The states consist of fourteen superior clergy, and the deputies of sixty-eight towns and bailliages. The religion is the Lutheran, with some Calvinists, and some colonies of the Vaudois. The church is ruled by four superintendants, who are styled abbots, and 38 rural deans: a synod is annually held in the autumn. Education and ecclesiastical studies are favoured by a number of laudable institutions. The seminary of Tubingen used to contain about 300 students; and there is an academy of education at Stutgard.

The manufactures are pottery, glass, woollen, linen, and silk; which, with the natural products of the country, supply a considerable export: the imports are by Frankfort on the Maine. The chief towns of this kingdom are,

1. *Stutgard*, an ancient city pleasantly situated on the river Nasenbech, which soon afterwards falls into the Neckar. The streets are narrow in the city, and the houses generally of wood; but in the suburbs they are of stone, of modern architecture, and regularly laid out. Here are the royal palace, with rich cabinets of curiosities, and handsome gardens; an orphan-house; an academy of painting, sculpture, and architecture; and manufactories of stuffs, silk stockings, and ribbands. This city has not, like most of the

other towns in Germany, suffered much from the late wars; but it was greatly damaged by a dreadful fire in 1761.

2. *Tubingen*, the second city in the kingdom, beautifully situated upon the river Neckar, between two hills. It has an ancient university, a seminary for the study of the law, and a college for the nobility. In the town-house is a very curious clock. In this city the ancient Palatines of Tubingen, whose origin is unknown, had their *pfalz*, or *palatium*, which stood on the scite of the present castle.

3. *Reutlingen*, a considerable city, formerly belonging to Austria, being one of the five cities of the Danube, lately ceded to this kingdom. It is situated on a small stream, which runs into the Neckar, 32 miles N.N.W. of Ulm. The principal buildings are the parochial church, an hospital, a grammar school, and an orphan-house. The inhabitants are chiefly Lutherans.

The other towns are small, but remarkably numerous, and the villages thickly placed in a populous and flourishing country.

KINGDOM OF BADEN.

The territories of this potentate are situated along the banks of the Rhine for a considerable extent, at present, with its recent acquisitions, comprehending the whole of the western and south-western divisions of Swabia, together with a considerable portion of the late circle of the Upper Rhine. The following table presents at one view the extent and population of the different countries:

	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Margravate of Baden Proper	960	180,000	Baden
The Brisgau	832	115,000	Freyburg
The Ortenau			Old Brisach
Principality, late bishopric of Constance, &c.	740	120,000	Constance
Part of the Palatinate of the Rhine, and late bishopric of Spire	480	130,000	Heidelberg
			Manheim
			Philipsburg
	3012	545,000	

The climate and soil of the component countries of this kingdom are uniformly mild, rich, and fertile, being greatly enriched by its contiguity to the Rhine, which, for upwards of 150 miles, divides it from France, the great mart for the produce and manufactures of the country. No accurate statement having yet been given of the military force or revenue of this kingdom, we are precluded from presenting them to our readers. It will be sufficient to observe, that this kingdom, together with all the others of this confederacy are, at present, under the direction of France, the emperor of which is said to treat them as his vassals, making requisitions and issuing

ing his mandates respecting them at pleasure. The chief towns of this kingdom are,

1. *Baden*, the capital and seat of the government, finely situated on the Rhine, by which river it carries on a considerable trade. The houses are indifferently built, and the streets spacious; those for public use are striking and magnificent: but here is little to attract particular notice, except the royal palace, which is a stately structure, beautifully fitted up, and having an extensive library and cabinet of natural and artificial rarities.

2. *Manheim*, a beautiful city, seated upon and almost entirely surrounded by the rivers Rhine and Neckar. The houses are handsomely built, and form a number of straight streets, which intersect each other at right angles, at the entrance of three of the principal of which are a similar number of gates, of admirable workmanship, adorned with basso-relievos, very neatly executed. The palace of the late elector palatine of the Rhine is a splendid edifice, most handsomely decorated with paintings, antiques, and an extensive menage. This is a place of great trade, which is greatly increased by its advantageous situation on the Rhine, by means of which it has extensive communications with Holland, Switzerland, &c. The number of inhabitants in 1781, exclusive of the garrison, was 21,858, who, in 1805, were said to have increased to upwards of 25,000.

3. *Heidelberg*, a populous town, 20 miles south-east of the last-mentioned, seated upon the Neckar, over which there is a handsome stone bridge. The houses are well built, and the streets are broad and tolerably regular. This town is noted for the excellence of its beer; and here is a large tun which is said to contain 800 hogshheads. The circumjacent country is extremely pleasant and productive.

4. *Constance*, an ancient city, situated on the Rhine, between the two divisions of the extensive lake bearing its name, was ceded to this kingdom by the treaty of Presburg, in 1805. It has magnificent public buildings, and had once a most flourishing commerce; but is now greatly reduced. A dead stillness reigns through the streets, in which the grass is said to grow. The inhabitants do not exceed 3000.

The above are the most prominent cities and towns in this kingdom, in which there are a great number of others by far too numerous for particular detail.

SWEDISH POMERANIA.

This country, which still pertains to the kingdom of Sweden, is situated on the coast of the

Baltic, in the ancient circle of Upper Saxony; and, including the Isle of Rugen, contains 1200 square miles, and 120,000 inhabitants. The climate is cold; but this is, in a great measure, compensated by the fertility of the soil, which abounds in pastures and grain, of which a great quantity is exported. The chief town is

Stralsund, a strong city, situated on a fine bay in the Baltic, the harbour being separated from the Isle of Rugen by a narrow strait. The houses are tolerably well built, chiefly of stone, and the streets are regular; but this city suffered greatly from the late siege in 1807, when its till then deemed impregnable fortifications were destroyed, and the city laid in ruins.

The Isle of RUGEN is about 23 miles long and 15 broad, and is separated from the continent by a narrow strait, about a mile in breadth. It contains twenty-seven parishes, and abounds in corn and cattle. The chief town is

Bergen, anciently *Gora*, situated in the centre of the island, where the tribunals of Swedish Pomerania are held.

SECTION II.

General Observations on the Climate and Seasons—Soil and Face of the Country—Rivers—Lakes—Mountains—Forests—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Curiosities—Antiquities—Original Population—Manners and Customs—Manufactures and Commerce—Language—Religion and Government, &c. of the People.

Climate and Seasons.—HAVING already, in the description of the different states of this country, adverted, in a particular way, to the climate and seasons of each, it will only be necessary to observe generally, that Germany, in this respect, has great diversity of climate. In the northern parts it is cold and humid; but in the middle and southern, mild and salubrious. Though the northern provinces are situated under the same latitude as the southern and most pleasant parts of England, yet the cold is much more severe, and of longer duration than in this island; but the weather is more settled than with us, a series of wet or dry weather frequently continuing several weeks without intermission. The middle of this extensive country is by far the most pleasant, at an equal distance from the Baltic and German Seas in the north, and the Alps to the south.

Soil and Face of the Country.—The soil of Germany, not being, in many places, improved by tillage and culture, is bare and sterile; though in others extremely fertile. Of late years a greater attention has been paid to the study and improvement of agriculture than heretofore; and but

but for the unsettled state of the country, for the last twenty years, it, no doubt, would have presented a much more fertile aspect than it does at present. To the north of the river Maine, Germany chiefly presents wide, sandy plains, which seem as if they had been, in the first ages of the world, overwhelmed by the sea. Some hills begin to appear in the neighbourhood of Minden; and in the south of the Hanoverian dominions arise the most northern mountains of Germany, those of Blocksberg, and others in the Hartz. To the south-west are the mountains of Hessa, and others extending towards the Rhine; whilst, on the east, the rich and variegated country of Saxony, one of the most beautiful and fertile in the whole country, extends to the southern limits of the mountains of Erzgebirg, abundant in mines and singular fossils. The districts to the south of the Maine may be regarded as rather mountainous.

Rivers.—This country is watered by numerous and important rivers. In the north, the Elbe is the most distinguished stream, rising in the Sudetic mountains of Silesia; after running south for about 50 miles, it suddenly assumes its destination of north-west, receives the Mulda and Eger from Bohemia, the Mulda and Sala from Saxony, and the large river Havel from the east, and enters the sea near Cuxhaven, after a course of more than 500 British miles. The tide is perceived to the height of 22 miles; and, when raised by the north wind, vessels of a moderate size can get up to Hamburgh; but they are in general obliged to anchor a mile below that city.

To the west of the Elbe is the Weser, a considerable river, which first receives that name when its two sources, the Werra and the Fulda, join near Munden, in the principality of Calenberg, about 16 British miles south-west of Göttingen. The Werra springs in the principality of Hildburghausen; and the Fulda, in the territories of the late bishopric (now principality) so called. It flows about 270 British miles. The chief tributary stream is the Aller, from the duchy of Brunswick. The inundations of the Weser are often terrible, the adjacent towns and villages seeming to form islands in the sea: hence the shores are esteemed unhealthy.

The Ems is an unimportant river, which rises in the county of Paderborne, and, after passing through the principality of Munster, falls into the German Ocean a little below Embden.

The Rhine, which is one of the largest rivers in Europe, rises in three streams in the Grison Alps, near the southern part of Switzerland. The principal branch descends from the mountain of St. Gothard; and, after being

joined by the others, together with a number of tributary streams, passes through the lakes of Constance and Zell, and visiting Basil, Strasburg, Spire, Mentz, Worms, Mannheim, Coblenz, Cologne, Dusseldorf, &c. it divides itself into three branches, one of which preserves the name of the Rhine, and loses itself in the sands west of Leyden; one of the others takes the name of Leck, or Lech, and falls into the North Sea beyond Rotterdam; while the other takes a northerly course, and, under the name of the Yssel, falls into the Zuyder Zee at Kampen. This noble river forms the grand ancient barrier between France and Germany; and its course may be computed at about 600 British miles. On the German side it is diversified with mountains and rocks; but from Basil to Spire the shores are flat and uninteresting. In the neighbourhood of Mentz, they become rich, grand, and variegated; and on the confluence with the Maine, the waters are distinguishable for many leagues. The Rhingau is celebrated for its wines, and the romantic appearance of the country; the river running amidst wild rocks crowned with majestic castles; while, as far as Bonn, the shores abound with beautiful and striking objects, the Rhine not appearing to assume its grandeur till after its junction with the Maine.

In the southern part of Germany the most important river is the Danube, which rises near the little town of Doneschingen, in Swabia. This noble river becomes navigable a little above Ulm, where it receives the Iler. The next tributary streams of consequence are the Lech, which comes from the Tyrol, and the Iser, from Upper Bavaria. The Danube runs about 250 miles through this part of Germany, passing by Ulm, Ratisbon, and Passau. It may be considered as an Austrian river for about 550 miles, till it reaches Orsova; thence it is a Turkish river for 480 to the Euxine.

The Neckar is a tributary stream of the Rhine, rising in the Black Forest, not far from the Danube, and running a picturesque course of about 150 British miles, through a country variegated with vineyards.

The Maine is a considerable, but muddy, stream, yet it abounds with fish. After passing through the rich principalities of Bamberg and Wurtzburg, and some territories of the late see of Mentz, it waters the walls of Frankfort, a city of celebrated trade, a little below which it falls into the Rhine.

Lakes.—Germany, to the north of the Maine, presents few lakes, the largest being in the duchy of Mecklenburg, where the lake of Plau extends, under various names, about 25 British miles in length, by six in breadth. That of Schwerin is about

about 18 miles in length; while that of Ratzburg is 15. There is one in the county of Diepholtz, and another in the county of Mansfeldt, in Upper Saxony. In the more southern and Alpine regions of the Boden See, or lake of Constance, is the most distinguished expanse of water, which will be described under Switzerland. Next is the Chiem See, in Upper Bavaria, about 14 British miles in length, by five in breadth, sometimes largely styled the sea of Bavaria. That circle, like most mountainous countries, contains many other lakes of smaller account.

Mountains.—The most northern mountains are those of the Hartz, called the Brocken, or Blocksberg. These mountains rise in the form of an amphitheatre, the highest being what is called the great Blocksberg, which only presents white stunted brushwood; and the snow sometimes remains till Midsummer. On the summit is a small hovel, a retreat for those who ascend. The height of the great Brocken is by the barometer 3021 feet; and the little Brocken 2713.

There are some hills near Minden, in Westphalia; and in the duchy of the same name bordering on Hessia, are the mountains of Winterberg, Astenberg, Schlossberg, and others. The Hessian territories are generally mountainous, especially towards the north. The range of Meisner contains a coal mine, under which is a bed of petrified wood. To the north of Cassel are many high mountains, as the Stauffenburg, the summit of which is called Bartelskopf, and the Gameberg towards Munden. On the south of Gotha is the mountainous forest of Thuringia; the chief summits being the Inselberg, of porphyry, 3127 feet above the sea; and the Schneekopf, 3313 feet. Thence south-west towards the Rhine are several considerable hills. But the most celebrated mountains in that part of Germany which lies to the north of the Maine, are the Erzgebirg, or metallic mountains, which rise to the north-east of the Fichtelberg, running between Bohemia and Saxony, and supplying both countries with silver, tin, and other metals. Misnia contains mountains of pitchstone; and that strong primeval substance called hornblend, which approaches to the nature of iron, is found in mighty strata. In Voigtland, near Averbach, appears the famous topaz rock, consisting of pale topazes in hard lithomarga. Micaceous schistus and slate also form portions of the Saxon mountains. Those of Hessia consist of primary and secondary substances; and a summit of the Meisner, as already mentioned, consists of basalt resting on coal. In the Hartz, granite also abounds; with porphyry, slate, and other primitive substances. Coals are found in many parts of the country.

Among the German mountains to the south of the Maine, is the Bergstrass, a ridge passing from near Mannheim to the vicinity of Frankfurt, and accompanied by a highway, commanding prospects of wide extent. On the east are the high hills of Odenwald. Further to the south are the mountains of Wurtemberg, rising both on the east and west of that extensive kingdom. On the west the mountains form a continuation of those of the Black Forest, which hence proceeds south to the Rhine, being the *Abnoba* of Tacitus, whence is derived the source of the Danube; and the Helvetian forest of Ptolemy. The mountains of the Black Forest, in German *Schwarzwald*, extend from near Neuenburg, in the territories of Wurtemberg, south to the four forest-towns on the Rhine. The southern part is called the High, and the northern the Lower Forest; the length being about 80 British miles. To the east the Neckar may be considered as a boundary; and the breadth may be computed at about 20 British miles. A branch of the Black Mountains spreads east from near Sulz, on the Neckar, towards the county of Oettingen, being more than 60 miles in length. This chain is called the Alb, and sometimes the Swabian Alps. The principal summits are in the north and west of the ridge; and the forests are chiefly beech, while the open spaces supply pasturage for numerous flocks of sheep.

A considerable portion of the Black Forest, and the Alb, pervades the kingdom of Wurtemberg; and near Stutgard, the capital, are the mountains of Boysersteig, Weinsteig, and Hasenstein.

The south-east of this portion of Germany is bounded by the high mountains of Bavaria and Salzia, or Salzburg; being branches or continuations of the Swiss or Tyrolese Alps, but without general appellations. An account has been published of the Alps of Salzburg, whence it would seem that they exceed in height the Carpathian chain, or the Pyrenees, and only yield to the Swiss and Tyrolese Alps. The highest summits are said to be the Sonnenblick, the Ankogel, the Wisbacher Horn, and the Löffler, in the Stillupe. Even the next to these in height, the Hohe Nan, or the Höckhorn, is computed at 10,633 feet above the sea; and the Grosse Kogel, in Rauris, at 9100; while several others exceed 8000 feet. The mines of this country are celebrated. The chief ridge of the Salzian Alps is on the south and east of the country, being an elongation of the grand chain, reaching from Mont Blanc and Mount Rosa, along the north of Italy, through Tyrol.

Forests.—There are yet considerable remains of the ancient forests which pervaded Germany.

They are found in the south of Mecklenburg, continued easterly in different parts of the Prussian dominions. The chief forests appear always to have extended along the middle regions of Germany, from the north-west towards the south-east. The Dromling wald is to the north of Magdeburg; but the Solinger wald, the woody mountains of Hartz, the Lutten wald, and the wide forest of Thuringia, may be said to be connected with the ancient forest of Silesia, extending far to the east through the centre of Poland and Russia. Farther to the south, in this part of Germany, are the Spessart forest, and others. In the portion south of the Maine, the vast Black Forest, and the woods along the Alb, are continued by others in various parts of Bavaria. It is worthy of remark, that the passion among the grandes for the chase of the wild boar, and other pleasures of hunting, has contributed greatly to the preservation of the forests.

In the same degree as Spain is distinguished by its groves of cork-trees and ilex, and Scandinavia by its fir woods, so is Germany remarkable for its deep and almost impenetrable forests of oak. The plants and shrubs are abundant, and in all the variety of those northern countries which are not affected by the severity of the climate.

Animals.—The zoology of the western half of Germany corresponds so much with that of the Austrian dominions, that little need be added. The German horses are generally more remarkable for weight than spirit. The German wild boar is of superior size; and those of Westphalia are in particular estimation: they differ in colour from our common hogs, and are three times as large. The glutton of this country is said to be the most voracious of all animals. Its prey is almost every thing that has life which it can manage, especially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns, which it surprises artfully, and devours greedily. On these the glutton feeds so ravenously that it falls into a kind of torpid state, and, not being able to move, is killed by the huntsmen: but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red. In the north of Germany the lynx sometimes appears; and the wolf is often seen in the south.

Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine birds, particularly larks, which are sent to all parts of Europe. The rivers abound with all the kinds of fish that are found in other European countries. Among the insects are an innumerable quantity of large snails, which are in great request among the peasantry, who esteem them a great delicacy.

Vegetables.—Germany yields abundance of all the different kinds of grain that are found in the other countries of Europe, together with hemp, flax, saffron, tobacco, and all sorts of garden and orchard fruits. The vine is found to flourish throughout the southern part of this extensive territory; but the most delicious wines in request are those of Swabia and the Rhine, commonly called Rhenish and Moselle, which differ from those of other countries in a peculiar lightness and detersive quality, frequently more efficacious in some diseases than the most celebrated medicines. In a country of such great extent and of so varied a surface, it must needs happen that the native vegetable productions of the territories bordering on the German Ocean should differ considerably from those of the Black Forest, and on the frontiers of the Tyrol. There is, on the whole, more uniformity than might be expected; and though, perhaps, few plants are absolutely peculiar to Germany, yet the abundance of some species, and the absence of others, forms a striking feature in the natural history of this extensive country.

Minerals.—Germany abounds in almost all the various metals and minerals. Many of the divisions contain mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Saltpetre, salt-mines, and salt-pits, are found in Bavaria and Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, sapphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearls, turquois stones, and the finest sort of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria and the Tyrol are quarries of beautiful marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red-lead, alum, and bitumen, besides other fossils. In several parts of Germany are extensive coal-pits; and the *terra sigillata*, found in the late bishopric of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, has been pretended to be an antidote against poison.

Mineral Waters.—Previous to the annexation of the German territories on the left bank of the Rhine to France, Germany contained some of the most celebrated mineral waters in Europe, particularly those of Spa and Aix-la-Chapelle. It still, however, retains some of noted celebrity; as the medicinal waters of Ems, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, which are said to be extremely efficacious in almost all disorders. The springs at the last-mentioned place are said to be of an intoxicating quality, and are therefore inclosed. Those of Carlsbad and Baden have been described and recommended by many great physicians, and used with singular success by several royal personages. It is, however, not improbable that great part of the salutary virtues ascribed to these waters is owing to the exercises and amusements of the patients, and numbers of the

the company which crowd to them from all parts of the continent, many of whom do not repair hither for health, but for amusement and conversation.

Natural and Artificial Curiosities.—The principal natural curiosities of Germany consist of caves and rocks. Near Blackenburg, in Hartz forest, is said to be a cave of which no person has yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles. But the most remarkable curiosity of this kind is near Hamelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where, at the entrance of a dreadful cavern, stands a monument which commemorates the loss of 130 children, who were there swallowed up in 1284. Near Blackenburg are two large rocks, exactly representing two monks in their proper habits; and in several parts of the country stones are met with that appear to be petrefactions of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

With respect to artificial curiosities, the large tun at Heidelberg, which holds 800 hogsheads, is the most striking. Though now empty, it was formerly full of the best Rhenish wine, from which strangers were seldom suffered to retire sober. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern.

Antiquities.—The antiquities of Germany consist chiefly of a few Roman remains in the south and west. The churches founded by Charlemagne, and the many castles erected by powerful princes and barons, are too numerous to mention.

Original Population.—Germany appears to have been full of extensive forests, even in the Roman period, and of course to have been in many parts thinly peopled; yet the Cimbri, or modern Celts, possessed several tracts in the south, as also a large portion of the north-west. On the north-east of Germany the Finnish nations preceded the incursions of the Goths and Slavons. The Scythians or Goths first came from the Euxine, expelled the Cimbri and Fins; and long before history gives any account of them, they had formed colonies in the north of France, whence a portion passed to England. The Goths on the Euxine, and the German nations, were the destroyers of the Roman empire in the west.

The interior of this country remained unexplored till the age of Charlemagne, and the northern parts for some centuries after that period.

Manners and Customs.—Having already, in our description of Austria, entered at some length into the manners and customs of the inhabitants of that empire, who till very lately were only one people, under the same government, and descended from the same origin, it will hardly be

necessary to repeat here what has already been asserted. There are, however, some national traits which should not be omitted. The inhabitants in general are a frank, honest, and hospitable people, in a great measure free from artifice and disguise. They possess great industry, application, and perseverance, particularly the mechanical part of the community, whose works of art would be incredible were they not well known, especially in watch and clock-making, turnery, jewellery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture. They are, however, justly charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, which, doubtless, arises from the vast plenty of their country in wines and provisions of every kind. Modern travellers, however, seem to think that these excesses are less common than heretofore; for though at the greatest tables the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repast is commonly finished with coffee, after three or four public toasts have been given. But no people have more feasting at weddings, funerals, or on birthdays. In their dress the higher ranks copy the French; but they are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially in the army. The ladies at the different courts differ little, if any, from those of France; and they are represented as being equally fond of paint. The female part of the burghers' families in many of the German towns, dress in a very different manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic; but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and several of them make quite a different appearance to what they did twenty years ago. As to the peasantry and labourers, they dress as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumstances. The stoves used in this country are sometimes made portable, so that the ladies carry them to church. In Westphalia and many other parts of Germany, they sleep between two featherbeds, with sheets stitched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the inhabitants are the tenants of little needy princes, who squeeze them to keep up their own dignity. But, in general, it may be said, that their circumstances have been bettered by the recent changes in this country. The amusements of the Germans are the same as those already enumerated in our delineation of Austria.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The manufactures of Germany are numerous and important; there being scarcely any articles of European traffic that are not fabricated in some part of this extensive region. They are particularly famous in making fire-arms of all descriptions, and in the manufacture of what are in England termed Dutch

Dutch toys, which are in great request all over the world.

The commerce of Germany, in time of peace, is very extensive; their ports being frequented by vessels from all parts of the globe, which introduce their various produce, and carry back the manufactures and growth of the country.

Literature and Language.—No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taste for reading, especially in the Protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; almost every man of letters is an author. They multiply books without number in every department of literature; and thousands of theses and disputations are annually published: for no man can be a graduate in their universities who has not published one disputation at least.

Many of the Germans have greatly distinguished themselves in various branches of learning and science. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Stork, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heister, of anatomy and surgery; and Neumann, Zimmermann, Pott, and Margraff, of chemistry. In astronomy, Kepler deservedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the first writers on the law of nature and nations, and has also merit as an historian. But at the end of the last century, and the beginning of the present, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious sects, was so much involved in disputes about systematic theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language also, and the style of writing German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; which, though they were not understood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of superiority to the writers, and therefore much affected: for an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet divested themselves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberless quotations from all sorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true test of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantic, and were, in consequence, disregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730 that the prospects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolff opened the way to a better philosophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottsched, an author and professor at Leipsic, who was greatly honoured by Frederic II. king of

Prussia, introduced a better taste of writing, by publishing a German grammar, and instituting a literary society for polishing and restoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the study of the *belles lettres*. We may consider this as the epocha from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language upon learned subjects, and to free themselves, in a considerable degree, from that verbiage and pedantry by which they had been characterized. About this time several young men in the university of Leipsic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publishing some periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of persons of literary taste. Some of these gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high estimation.

The style of preaching among the German divines also now underwent a considerable change. They began to translate the best English and French sermons, particularly those of Tillotson, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by these models; and Mosheim, Spalding, Zollikofer, and others, have published sermons which would do credit to any country; although they still retain too much of that prolixity for which German divines and commentators have been so much censured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are still too much distinguished by vulgar language, absurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reason and good sense.

Some of the English periodical writings, such as the *Spectator*, *Tatler*, and *Guardian*, being translated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared of various merit. One of the first and best was published at Hamburg, under the title of “*The Patriot*,” in which Dr. Thomas, the late bishop of Salisbury, was concerned, he being at that time chaplain to the British factory at Hamburg, and a considerable master of the German language. The late professor Gillert, who is one of the most elegant of the German authors, and one of the most esteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taste. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inspire sentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verse, his letters, and his moral romances, are so much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them all by heart. His comedies are also very popular; though they are rather too sentimental, and better adapted for the closet than for the stage.

Haller,

Haller, the famous physician, Hagedorn, Uz, Croneigh, Lessing, Gleim, Gerstenberger, Kleist, Klopstock, Ramler, Zacarie, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Croneigh, Lessing, Wieland, Wiese, Schiller, and Kotzebue, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his satirical works, immortalized his name among the Germans; though some of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German customs, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleasure by persons of other nations. Gesner, whose *Idylls* and *Death of Abel* have been translated into the English language, and favourably received, is better known to an English reader.

In chemistry and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very conspicuous; and Reimarus, Zimmermann, Abt, Kästner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philosophical writings. Busching is an excellent geographical writer; and Masco, Burrau, Putter, Gatterer, Gebaur, and Schmidt, have excelled in historical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Most of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or else very dry and uninteresting; which, perhaps, is owing to education, to false delicacy, or to a certain taste of knight-errantry, which is still predominant among some of their novel-writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelmann, Klog, and Lessing, are familiar with those who are skilled in this branch of literature. In ecclesiastical, philosophical, and literary history, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Mosheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphaelius, Michaëlis, and Walch, are famous in sacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiske, Ernesti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne, have published some of the best editions of Greek and Latin classics.

It is an unfavourable circumstance for German literature, that the French language should be so fashionable in the German courts instead of the German, and that so many of their princes should give it so decided a preference. Frederic II., king of Prussia, had ordered the Philosophical Transactions of his royal society at Berlin, from the beginning of its institution, to be published in the French tongue, by which some of the Germans think his majesty cast a very undeserved reproach upon his native language.

With respect to the fine arts, the Germans have

acquitted themselves very well. Germany has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the first inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if first invented in Holland, was soon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to have been the first inventors of great guns, as also of gunpowder, in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewise produced some excellent musicians,—Handel, Bach, Hasse, and Haydn, of whom Handel stands at the head, having arrived at the sublime of music.

The German language is derived from the old Teutonic and Gothic. It varies considerably in its dialects, as spoken in different parts of the country, and is purest in Saxony and Hanover, and in the southern and eastern provinces most corrupted and uncouth. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch. The German Paternoster is as follows:—

Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel, geheiligt werde dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geschehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser täglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unsere schulden, als wir vergeben unsern schuldigern. Und führe uns nicht in versuchung. Sondern erlöse uns von dem bösen. Den dein ist das reich, und die kraft, und die herrlichkeit, in ewigkeit. Amen.

Religion.—Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German bishops were possessed (as indeed many of them continued to be till the late secularizations) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors, as well as of the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their superstition. The Bohemians were the first who had an idea of reformation, and made so glorious a stand, for many years, against the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the sacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romish church. This was in a great measure owing to the celebrated Englishman John Wickliffe, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himself, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliffe was seconded by John Huss and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithstanding the emperor's safe-conduct, were infamously burnt at the council of Constance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther*, though it struck at the chief abuses in the church of Rome, was thought in some points (particularly that of consubstantiation, by which the real body of Christ, as well as the elements

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483; began to dispute the doctrines of the Romish church 1517; and died in 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

of bread and wine, is supposed to be taken in the sacrament) to be imperfect. Calvinism*, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practised in the church of Scotland), was introduced into Germany, and is the religion professed in the territories of the king of Prussia, the landgrave of Hesse, and some other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some even assert that the numbers of Protestants and Papists are now almost equal. Germany, particularly Moravia and the Palatinate, as also Bohemia, is over-run with sectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound throughout. At present, the modes of worship and forms of church government are, by the Protestant German princes, considered in a civil rather than a religious light.

The elector-archchancellor (the late elector and archbishop of Mentz) is primate and metropolitan of all Germany; and the see of Mentz has been transferred to Ratisbon. Germany formerly contained six archbishoprics and thirty-eight bishoprics. At present, the hierarchy appears to be thrown into some confusion by the late secularizations.

Government.—The late government of Germany was very peculiar: the sovereign princes of it, amounting to nearly 300, though arbitrary with regard to the government of their own domains, were many of them only vassals to the emperors, who were elective monarchs, chosen by the electors, eight in number; viz. the archbishops of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne; and the electors of Brandenburg, Hanover, Bohemia, Saxony; and the palatine of the Rhine. Previous to 1437 the emperors had very great power; but from that period their authority was more circumscribed, the supreme jurisdiction residing in the diets, which were composed of three colleges, that of the electors, that of the princes, and that of the imperial towns. The first consisted of eight votes; in the second there were a hundred, of which thirty-three were ecclesiastical, sixty-one secular, and six collective; in the third were fifty-one. But all these are now annihilated; and, as before observed, the five kings already mentioned, together with several of the minor princes, have formed a confederation, acknowledged by the leading powers of the continent, of which Bonaparte is styled the Grand Protector. The emperor of Germany, on the 2d of August, 1805, formally resigned the power and title of emperor of Germany, only retaining that of Austria. This is the present state of the country, as nearly correct as we have been able to furnish it.

SECTION III.

Historical Summary.

THE history of this country can be traced back to a very distant period. The manners of the ancient Germans are well described by Tacitus, the Roman historian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly distinguished by their love of liberty and arms. They opposed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and still continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occasionally connected by a military union for defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberties of them all. At length, the Roman power, supported by art and policy, prevailed over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was invaded by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480; and a considerable part of it long remained in subjection to earls and marquisses of that nation. In this situation Germany continued, notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the rest into subjection, until the beginning of the ninth century: then it was that Charlemagne, one of those eccentric and superior geniuses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the death of Lewis III. in the year 911; at which time the different princes assuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovingian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, have mounted the throne. Of these, the most considerable, until the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of these emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the Popes. From these, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to

* John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he settled at Geneva, in 1539, where he established a new form of church discipline, which was soon after embraced by several nations and states, who are now denominated Presbyterians, and, from their doctrinal articles, Calvinists. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

disquiet the empire for several ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks; and the German princes often contended among themselves for the imperial dignity. But what more deserves the attention of a judicious reader than all these noisy but uninteresting quarrels, is the progress of government in Germany, which was in some measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire raised by Charlemagne fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed the right of election; and those now distinguished by the name of electors had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne; they were only the officers of the king's household, his secretary, his steward, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's person, and had, like all the other princes, independent territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority, and in the reign of Otho III. of the house of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor*. Thus while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the people's rights. Otho I. having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy, that he and his successors should have the power of nominating the pope and of granting investitures to bishops. Henry V. a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122, surrendered up the right of investiture and other powers, to the disgrace of the imperial dignity: but Pope Benedict XII. refusing absolution to Lewis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared in the diet of the empire, that the majority of the suffrages of the electoral college should confer the empire without the consent of the pope; that he had no superiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II., archduke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his successors, Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy; whereby Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V., grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mo-

ther, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards; and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in several parts of Germany, which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes, and the French king, Francis I. Though successful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the conclusion of it, began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I., who, in 1558, succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address to get his son Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that if either his own male issue, or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter Anne, wife of the elector of Bavaria, and her issue. This destination is noticed, as it gave rise to the opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction, in favour of the late empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father, Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed with internal commotions, and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. To him succeeded in the empire his brother Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias, at last, reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commissaries out of a window at Prague. This gave rise to a ruinous war, which lasted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin Ferdinand II.; but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector Palatine, the most powerful Protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic majesty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he lost it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals,

* Wiquefort says that nothing was settled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV. who was chosen emperor in 1347, made that famous constitution for the election of emperors called the *Golden Bull*.

at the battle of Prague; and he was also deprived of his own electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The Protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with great firmness and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach, Christian duke of Brunswick, and count Mansfield; the last was one of the best generals of his age. Christian IV. king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French minister, was not fond of seeing the house of Austria aggrandized. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian having put himself at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialist, of great reputation in war. Ferdinand so grossly abused the advantages obtained over the Protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipsic, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. His amazing victories and progress have already been described, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the Protestant cause did not die with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torstenson, Banier, and others, who shook the Austrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded at Munster, in the year 1648; which forms the basis of the present political system of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a severe, unamiable, and unfortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one side, and the Turks on the other; and was a loser in his war with both. France took from him Alsace; and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary; and by the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withstood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against the French power, the consequences of which have been already described. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died in 1705.

Leopold was succeeded by his son Joseph,

who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill served by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very splendid victories, had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was evident by his conduct, that he expected England should take the principal part in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The English were disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and, leaving no male issue, was succeeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI., whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place, in 1713, Charles, at first, made a show as if he would continue the war; but found himself unable, now that he was forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France, at Baden, in 1714, that he might oppose the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another, of equal importance, from the same general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialists; and the following year the peace of Passarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles was continually employed in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the house of Hanover; an event which gave him a very decisive weight in Europe, by the connexions of George I. and II. with the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and carried matters with so high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I.; and so unsteady was the system of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the principal powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones, contrary to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandizement, was the main object of the British court; as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empress-queen, he having no male issue. Mutual concessions upon those great points restored a good understanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony being prevailed upon by

by the prospects of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the great claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very ill success in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugène was then dead, and he had no general to supply his place. The system of France under cardinal Fleury happened at that time to be pacific, and she obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reason to expect. Charles, to pacify the German and other European powers, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave, than all he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered and conquered Silesia. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all those powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a considerable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and sufferings, and the noble fortitude with which she bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whose arms she threw herself and her infant son; and though they had always been remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time distressed on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions (as had been his ancestor in queen Anne's reign, for siding with France), and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but she haughtily and impolitically rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic majesty, her best, and, indeed, only friend. This obstinacy gave a colour for the king of Prussia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity: but though he took Prague, and sub-

dued the greatest part of the kingdom, he was not supported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conquests, and retired to Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that she might recover Silesia. Soon after, his imperial majesty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorraine, then grand duke of Tuscany, consort to her Hungarian majesty, after surmounting some difficulties, was chosen emperor, by the title of Francis I.

The bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empress-queen against his Prussian majesty. The latter defeated the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorraine, who had before driven the Prussians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empress-queen was such, that his Britannic majesty thought fit to guarantee to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Prussian majesty pretended that he had discovered a secret convention which had been entered into between the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to strip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themselves. Upon this he suddenly attacked the king of Poland, drove him out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden, which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine, now become great duke of Tuscany, for emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the disadvantage but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1756. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles, all former differences between these two monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of £670,000 to his Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His Prussian majesty once more broke into
5 z Saxony.

Saxony, defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowositz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impreguably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this his Prussian majesty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did theirs by another, into Germany. The conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is scarcely to be paralleled in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Austrians, under General Brown, who was killed, as was the brave Marshal Schwerin on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a most tremendous artillery; but just as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Austrian general Daun, obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eisenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialists, under Count Daun, were formed into excellent troops; but they were beaten at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained many other great advantages. - The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the war; and the cautious, yet enterprising genius of Count Daun, laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding his great victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorff; but an attack made upon his army, in the night-time, by Count Daun, at Hockkirchen, had nearly proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged however, to sacrifice Saxony, for the safety of Silesia; and it has been observed, that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did: six sieges were raised almost at the same time: that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipsic, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by Daun; and those of Neiss, Cosel, and Torgau, also by the Austrians.

Many important events which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies, must be omitted on account of the brevity necessary to be observed in this compendium. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though the war was extremely bloody and burdensome to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire.

The Russians had taken possession of the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians; but he soon found them by far the most formidable enemies he had to encounter. They advanced, under Count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men to Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair; but was at last totally defeated by the Russians, with the loss of 20,000 of his best troops, in a battle near Frankfort on the Oder. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were shut up. He had lost, since the first of October 1756, the brave marshal Keith, and forty brave generals, besides those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landschut, the imperial general Laudohn defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austrians an easy passage into Silesia. None but Frederic II. would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he received seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not, perhaps, very easy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealousy which the imperial generals entertained of their Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign he defeated the imperialists in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the best fought action the king of Prussia had ever been engaged in; but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was attended with no great consequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, seemed almost to have completed his ruin; when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died, January 5, 1762. George II. had died on the 25th of October 1760.

The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III. were solicitous to put an end to the war, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His Prussian majesty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced by his losses, that the empress-queen, probably, would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the prudent reluctance of the other German princes to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the empress-queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible unwillingness of her
generals

generals to execute her orders, and the successes obtained by his Prussian majesty, at last prevailed upon her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, February 15, 1763, which again secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia.

Upon the death of the emperor, the husband of Maria Theresa, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire. Soon after his accession, he discovered great activity and ambition. He joined in the dismemberment of Poland with Russia and Prussia. He paid a visit *incognito*, and with moderate attendants, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy; and had a personal interview with his Prussian majesty, though this did not prevent hostilities from being commenced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. The Austrian claims on this occasion were very unjust; but, in the support of them, while the contest continued, the emperor displayed great military skill. Though vast armies were brought into the field on both sides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. The emperor afterwards demanded of the Dutch the free navigation of the Scheld, but in this he likewise failed. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happiness of his subjects, granted a most liberal religious toleration, and suppressed most of the religious orders of both sexes, as being utterly useless, and even pernicious to society; and in 1783, by an edict, abolished the remains of servitude and villanage, and fixed also the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a pension in lieu. He also abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peasants

and common people laboured. He was a prince who mixed with his subjects with an ease and affability which are very uncommon in persons of his rank. He loved the conversation of ingenious men, and appeared solicitous to cultivate knowledge.

Peter Leopold, grand-duke of Tuscany, succeeded his brother Joseph II., and engaged in the public praise by repeated instances of moderation and solid principles. His former management of his Italian sovereignty, which was prudent and beneficent, shewed that he aspired to more just reputation than can be acquired by the mere splendours of royalty. One of the bishops of Hungary having refused his licence to a Catholic subject to marry a Protestant woman, the emperor dismissed him from his see; but pardoned him afterwards, upon concession, and desired the bishop to exhort his brethren to comply with the imperial ordonnances, else no favour should be shewn.

The French revolution now attracted the attention of the powers of Europe. A conference was held at Pilnitz, between the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony, at which the plan of attacking France was proposed and discussed. Leopold for some time was very irresolute, but at last seemed to be resolved on war, when he died of a pleuritic fever, on the 1st of March, 1792, after an illness of four days.

His son Francis was raised to the imperial throne in the middle of July following. He embarked with zeal in the confederacy formed against France. The disastrous consequences of this war to the house of Austria, till its conclusion, or rather suspension, by the treaty of Campo Formio; and the transient success, but final failure, which attended its renewal, till its termination by the peace of Luneville, will be related in our account of the affairs of France.

CHAP. X.

SWITZERLAND.

Name—Situation and Extent—Boundaries—Divisions, Chief Towns—Climate and Seasons—Soil and Face of the Country—Rivers—Lakes—Mountains—Forests—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Curiosities—Antiquities—Original Population—Manners and Customs of the present Inhabitants—Their Commerce and Manufactures—Literature and Language—Religion—Laws—Form of Government—History, &c.

Name.—THE provinces now known by the general name of Switzerland, were in ancient times distinguished by various appellations. The Romans regarded them as a part of Gaul; and their historians have represented the chief possessors to have been the Helvetii on the west, and the Rætii on the east. After the fall of the Roman empire, the eastern parts of this interesting country were possessed by the Allemanni, who also held Swabia and Alsace; while the west was considered as a part of Burgundia, the inhabitants being styled *Burgundi trans Jurenenses*, because, with regard to France, they were situated on the other side of the mountains of Jura. The territory being divided among several lords, secular and spiritual, the inheritance of the former at length chiefly centred in the house of Hapsburg, afterwards the celebrated family of Austria; and on its emancipation, in the beginning of the 14th century, first appeared the modern denomination of *Switzerland*, either derived from the canton of *Schweitz*, distinguished in that revolution, or from the general name of *Schweitzers*, given by the Austrians to the people of this mountainous region. For the sake of precision, modern writers restrict the terms *Schweitz* and *Schweitzer* to the canton so called; while the general appellation for the people is the Swiss, and for the country Switzerland, or *Swissersland*.

Situation and Extent.—Switzerland is situated between 6 and 11 degrees of east longitude, and 40 and 48 of north latitude. It extends in length, from east to west, about 260 British miles; and in breadth, from north to south, about 100. But a great part is lost to human industry, consisting

of vast rocks, partly covered with eternal ice and snow.

Boundaries.—The boundaries of this country are rather arbitrary than natural. On the west Mount Jura forms a grand division from France; and on the south, the Pennine Alps, a partial barrier from Italy. On the east lies the Bavarian territory of the Tyrol; and on the north is Swabia, containing, as it were, an excrescence of Switzerland on the other side of the Rhine, the small canton of Schaffhausen.

Divisions.—Before the year 1798 Switzerland was divided into 13 cantons, besides certain districts and towns subject to their government, and some small states acknowledged as their allies. The following table presents their order in point of precedency, together with their extent and population, as well as those of their subjects and allies.

Cantons.	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
1 Zurich - - -	752	175,000	Zurich
2 Berne - - -	3840	350,000	Berne
3 Lucerne - - -	496	100,000	Lucerne
4 Uri - - -	480	25,000	Altorf
5 Schweiz - - -	320	28,000	Schweitz
6 Underwalden - -	176	18,000	Stantz
7 Zug - - -	80	12,000	Zug
8 Glaris - - -	320	28,000	Glaris
9 Basil, or Basle -	160	38,000	Basil
10 Friburg - - -	464	73,000	Friburg
11 Soleure - - -	288	45,000	Soleure
12 Schaffhausen - -	128	30,000	Schaffhausen
13 Appenzel - - -	256	54,000	Appenzel
Subjects of the Swiss, consisting of the bailiwicks, free districts, &c. - - -	1888	348,000	Bremgarten Millingen Lucarno
The allies; viz. the republic of Geneva, the Grisons, the Valais, &c. - - -	5296	551,000	Geneva Coire Sion
		14,960	1,867,000

The late revolutions on the continent, however, have effected considerable changes in this country. The French have seized upon, and annexed to their own country, the city and territory

ritory of Geneva, the bishopric of Basil, and the towns and districts of Biel, or Bienne, and Muhlhausen; the Valtelin, and the lordships of Worms and Clafen, or Cleves, have become a part of the kingdom of Italy; and the republic of the Valais, and the principality of Neufchatel (formerly subject to Prussia), are now rendered entirely independent of the Swiss government. By the constitution of the 29th of May, 1801, this country was divided into 17 departments: the Pays de Vaud and Aargau, formerly comprehended in the canton of Berne, were formed into two distinct cantons; and the Grisons and Italian bailliages formed two additional cantons: the other divisions remained as before, with some additions of ecclesiastical lands, &c. to Glaris, Appenzel, Friburg, and Basil. The constitution dictated by France, in February, 1803, included 19 cantons, the extent and population of which have been estimated as follows:

Cantons.	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
1 Aargau - - - -	448	100,000	Aargau
2 Appenzel - - - -	256	60,000	Appenzel
3 Basil - - - -	160	40,000	Basil
4 Berne - - - -	1920	200,000	Berne
5 Friburg - - - -	576	70,000	Friburg
6 Glaris - - - -	336	24,000	Glaris
7 Grisons - - - -	2240	100,000	Coire
8 Lucerne - - - -	496	100,000	Lucerne
9 Pays de Vaud - - - -	1280	136,000	Lausanne
10 St. Gall - - - -	704	150,000	St. Gall
11 Schaffhausen - - - -	128	30,000	Schaffhausen
12 Schweiz - - - -	384	32,000	Schweitz
13 Soleure - - - -	240	50,000	Soleure
14 Tessin - - - -	720	160,000	Bellinzona
15 Thurgau - - - -	260	75,000	Frauenfeld
16 Unterwalden - - - -	192	20,000	Stantz
17 Uri - - - -	464	20,000	Altorf
18 Zug - - - -	88	15,000	Zug
19 Zurich - - - -	768	200,000	Zurich

11,660 1,582,000*

Though, as before observed, the republic of Valais, and the principality of Neufchatel, are, in a political sense, independent of the Swiss confederacy, they must, nevertheless, be included in a geographical description of this country. Their extent and population is as follows:

	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
The republic of Valais	1360	100,000	Sion
Principality of Neuf- chatel, and the coun- ty of Valengin - - - }	240	45,000	Neufchatel

We shall present our readers, as usual, with a short sketch of each of these cantons, beginning with that of

AARGAU, OR ARGOVIA,

Which is bounded on the north by the river Rhine, which divides it from Germany; on the east by the cantons of Zurich, and Zug; on the south by that of Lucerne; and on the west by those of Soleure and Basil. This canton, which is of modern erection, was entirely formed of the northern division of the ancient canton of Berne, and the county of Basil. It is about 40 miles long, and 30 broad; and is very fertile and pleasant. The inhabitants, who are nearly all Protestants, have some manufactures of cotton and muslins. The towns, or rather villages, are numerous, but unimportant. The principal are,

1. *Aargau*, or *Argovia*, the capital of the canton, a very ancient town, finely seated upon the river Aar, from whence its name is derived, and which also gives a similar appellation to the canton. The houses are chiefly of stone, and indifferently constructed. The only circumstance which renders this place worthy notice, is the circumstance of its being the place where the diets of the Protestant cantons are held. In those assemblies the deputies and their servants, being all citizens, dine in the same hall. The river Aar, which is here a very considerable stream, has rendered this place the seat of several flourishing manufactures of cotton, printed linen, cutlery, and tannery. The inhabitants are said not to exceed 2000 souls.

2. *Baden*, an ancient town, the capital of the former county or bailliage of the same name. It is said to have originated from a Roman station erected here, to prevent the incursions of the Allemanni. The selection of this spot, no doubt, originated from the extensive baths, which still continue in the vicinity of the town, and which the name implies. The buildings of this place are neither uniform nor striking; and there are no objects to render it peculiarly attractive. It is seated on the river Limmat, 14 miles N.W of Zurich.

APPENZEL,

This canton is, by the modern divisions of the country, entirely surrounded by the newly-formed canton of St. Gall. It extends from east to west about 30 miles, and from north to south nearly 22. The country is particularly wild and romantic, consisting of a continued series of hills, valleys, and mountains, the tops of which are covered with the most luxuriant pastures. The climate, from its greater elevation, is much superior to that of the surrounding countries, as the thick vapours which rise from the lake of

* Walknaer states it at 1,499,000.

Constance in the winter never reach or affect it. In the summer, also, it is free from the intemperate heats which are felt in the plains below. Before the Reformation the inhabitants were under one government; but since that period, one part having professed the reformed religion, and the other continuing Catholics, violent dissensions arose, which, after much contest, were, at length, compromised; and it was agreed that the canton should be divided into two portions, one of which was to be inhabited by the Protestants, and the other by the Papists, who being finally separated, formed two republics, the governments of which were democratical and totally independent of each other. In this state the canton remains to this day, its internal government not having been altered by the late revolution. Each division sends a deputy to the general diet; but both together have but one vote, and lose the suffrage if they are not unanimous in both divisions. The sovereign power is vested in the general assembly of the people, which meet annually in April. The towns of this canton are numerous, but uninteresting. The only one worthy notice is

Appenzel, or *Apenzell*, the capital of the canton, a handsome city, finely situated on a small river, which soon afterwards falls into the Rhine, 40 miles east of Zurich. The houses are neatly erected, upon a regular plan; and several of the public buildings are stately and magnificent. The trade and commerce of the place are very considerable, being chiefly derived from the manufactures of muslin and linen, which are also very considerable throughout all the canton, but the chief part centres in this town, and gives it a lively and flourishing appearance.

BASIL, OR BASLE.

This canton is situated in the north-western part of this country, and is bounded on the north by the Rhine, which separates it from Germany; on the east by Aargau; on the south by Soleure; and on the west by France. It is about 24 miles in length, and 15 in breadth.

The climate and soil of this canton are excellent; and the whole country is populous and well cultivated. It formerly composed a part of France, while under the government of Charlemagne; but on the division of the empire at the death of that prince, it became subject to the dukes of Austria, under whom it continued till the Swiss declared themselves independent. The established religion is the reformed, though, since the revolution in 1803, in all the cantons, a general liberty of religious worship is allowed throughout the whole country. The towns are

numerous, but unimportant; the only one worthy insertion is

Basil, or *Basle*, an ancient city, delightfully situated on the banks of the Rhine, near the point where that river, after flowing for some distance from east to west, suddenly turns towards the north. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Towns, which are united by a long bridge, built partly of wood and partly of stone. The Upper Town lies on the side of Switzerland, and the Lower on that of Germany. The former, which is by far the largest, is surrounded by thick walls, flanked with towers and bastions; it has five gates, six suburbs, 200 streets, six large squares, and forty fountains, and is partly situated on a hill. The other stands upon a plain, and has only two gates, with twenty streets, and some fountains. The streets in both divisions are extremely narrow; and the houses are neither neat nor regular. Some of the public buildings, however, deserve notice. The cathedral is an elegant Gothic structure, though strangely disfigured by a daubing of red paint smeared over the whole edifice; it contains several handsome monuments, particularly one in commemoration of the noted Erasmus, who was interred here. The town-house and paintings are much admired; and the university has produced many celebrated scholars; the public library contains a prodigious number of books and manuscripts, together with a valuable collection of medals. Literature and general knowledge are here greatly sought after; and the inhabitants in general are polite and well informed. The burghers' sons receive an excellent education; and it is not uncommon for even the poorer sort of tradesmen to employ their leisure time in reading Horace, Virgil, Plutarch, &c. The sumptuary laws are here very strict; and no person is allowed to have a servant behind his carriage. Basil is the largest, and has by many been accounted the chief town of Switzerland; but according to the new constitution of 1803, Berne is declared to be the metropolis. Basil, however, contains upwards of 14,000 inhabitants, though not near so populous as it was some years ago. The art of making paper is said to have been invented here; and there are several extensive manufactures, particularly of ribbands, cottons, silks, stuffs, printed linens, gloves, and cutlery. The clergy, who are under the superintendence of the chief pastor of the cathedral, are excluded, in this and all the other cantons, from any share in the public administration of justice, &c.; and, as in most of the Swiss towns, the practice of shutting the gates during divine service is strictly observed. Here is a most extensive printing-office, where the art is carried to the

the greatest perfection, particularly by a Mr. Haas, who has invented a method of printing maps and charts of any size, by means of moveable types, which can hardly be distinguished from the best engravings. The city stands 250 miles S. E. of Paris.

BERNE.

This canton is bounded on the north by those of Soleure and Aargau; on the east by Lucerne, Underwalden and Uri; on the south by the Valais; and on the west by Friburg, Valengin, and part of France. It extends about 100 miles in length, and upwards of 50 in breadth. Previous to the late division of this canton, its possessions were very extensive, forming nearly a third part of Switzerland, and more than a fourth of the actual population. The government of this canton is aristocratical, under the jurisdiction of the *advoyer*, council and burghers of the town, and the republic of Berne; but the executive powers of government are delegated to the senate, consisting of twenty-seven members, by whom all state affairs are managed. This canton is fertile and well cultivated. The chief places are,

1. *Berne*, the capital of the whole country, an ancient city, founded in 1191, by Bertold V. duke of Zaeringen, for the emperor Henry, son of Frederic Barbarossa. It is situated on a bold eminence or peninsula, three sides of which are washed by the river Aar, which winds its course over a rocky channel much below the level of the streets, and, for a considerable way, forms, by its steep and craggy banks, a kind of natural rampart. The principal streets are broad and spacious, with the houses large and convenient, mostly uniform, and built of greyish stones, upon arcades, which form piazzas on each side, with a walk raised four feet above the level of the street, which renders it very commodious in wet weather: most of the streets are paved with flints, and traversed by canals, lined with free-stone. Several of the public buildings are magnificent; the charitable institutions are numerous and liberal; the hospitals are in general large, clean, and airy buildings. Here is a literary academy, endowed with eight professorships; a public library, containing 20,000 volumes, and a cabinet of Swiss coins and medals. But this city has produced few men eminent for literature, if we except the immortal Haller. The population of Berne is estimated at nearly 15,000 souls.

2. *Thun*, a neat town, situated at the upper end of the lake of the same name, partly on a small island, and partly on a hill, 20 miles south-east of Berne. It contains about 2000 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in spinning and carding of silk for the manufactures of Basil. The river

Aar is navigable from hence to Berne; and there is a regular boat twice a week. The houses of this town are built on a regular plan; and the whole has a very neat and clean appearance.

FRIBURG.

This canton is bounded on the north and east by that of Berne; on the south by the Pays de Vaud; and on the west by the last-mentioned, and the principality of Neufchatel. It is about 35 miles long and 25 broad, and is tolerably fertile and well cultivated, though its surface is mountainous and rugged. The government is nearly similar to that of Berne, being a confirmed aristocracy. The only town worthy particular notice is

Friburg, or *Freyburg*, a considerable place, first built in 1179. It is situated in the most romantic spot of the whole canton. A small part of it stands upon level ground; the rest is perched among rocks and cliffs, half encircled by the river Saane, and entirely concealed by the surrounding hills. The fortifications, which are of high stone walls and towers, enclose a circumference of about four miles; the houses are, in general, spacious and well built; and most of the public buildings are dedicated to religion, the inhabitants of the town, and the whole canton, being most devout Catholics. In 1785 according to an exact enumeration, here were 5011 inhabitants.

GLARIS, OR GLARUS.

This canton consists of three vallies, buried between lofty and almost perpendicular mountains. It is bounded on the north and west by the new canton of St. Gall; on the south by the Grisons; and on the west by Uri and Schweitz. The length from north to south is estimated at about 24 miles; but its breadth, on account of the mountains, cannot be easily determined. The climate is cold and raw; but a great trade is carried on in black cattle and sheep, which are fed in summer upon the Alps, and are of an uncommonly large size, producing abundance of butter and cheese. The mountains yield a prodigious variety of uncommon plants, minerals, metals, crystals, medicinal springs, petrefactions, and large slates. The government is perfectly democratical; every person above the age of sixteen having a vote in the general assembly, which is held annually in May, in an open plain, according to the custom of the ancient Gauls and Germans. This assembly ratifies new laws, lays contributions, enters into alliances, declares war, and makes peace; the executive power, however, is vested in a landamman, or president, (chosen alternately from among the Protestants and Romanists,) and a council of fifty

fifty delegates chosen annually. The chief town of this canton is

Glaris, or *Glarus*, which is entirely enclosed by the Alps, there being no other entrance into it but through the opening between the mountains that separate this canton from that of *Schweitz*. The houses are neatly built; and the principal street, which is of considerable extent, is ornamented with fountains. So great is the simplicity of manners among the inhabitants of this town, that capital crimes are seldom or never committed, and public executions nearly unknown.

GRISONS.

This country, though for a length of time subject to these states, has, since 1803, been made a separate canton; it anciently formed a great part of the Roman province of *Rhætia*. It is bounded on the north by the canton of *Glaris*; on the east by the Bavarian province of *Tyrol*; on the south by the kingdom of *Italy*; and on the west by the Swiss *bailliages* now formed into the cantons of *Tessin*, and that of *Uri*. It extends 108 miles in length from east to west, and 90 in breadth from north to south. This country, previous to 1803, was divided into three leagues, which they denominated the *Caddée*, or *League of God's House*, formed in 1419, against the secular power of the bishops; the *Grise*, or *Grey League*, in 1424; and the *League of the Ten Jurisdictions*, in 1436; together with the counties of *Chiavenna* and *Bormio*, which were subject to the *Grisons*. The government of this canton is purely democratical, the inhabitants having established a similar system of government with that of *Glaris*, to which canton it bears a great resemblance in the leading features and productions of the country. The chief places are.

1. *Coire*, or *Char*, the capital, finely situated about half a mile from the *Rhine*, in a rich plain, at the foot of the Alps. It is surrounded by brick walls, fortified with square and round towers. The houses are neatly built; and the inhabitants are estimated at about 3000.

2. *Chiavenna*, a considerable town, near a lake of the same name. It has some trade in cattle, fruits, wine, and silk; and is one of the chief marts for the trade carried on between *Germany* and *Italy*.

LUCERNE.

This country occupies a tract of country which, in greatness and sublimity, as well as variety of scenery, exceeds any other in *Switzerland*. It is bounded on the north by the canton of *Aargau*; on the east by those of *Zug* and

Schweitz; on the south by *Underwalden*; and on the west by *Berne* and *Soleure*; being about 30 miles in length and 25 in breadth. The southern parts are very mountainous, and only furnish cattle, cheese, and butter; while the northern district is fertile in corn, the crops of which are more than sufficient for the consumption of the existing population. The government of *Lucerne* was at first an aristocracy, but afterwards, degenerated into an oligarchy, under two advoyers, who are annually chosen by a sovereign council consisting of 100 members from among the senators, who are 36 in number, and in whom the executive government is vested: but in some instances their authority is controlled; for, in making war and peace, forming new alliances, or imposing new taxes, it is necessary to have the consent of the people. The inhabitants of this canton, in general, are Roman Catholics. The chief place is

Lucerne, a very ancient and tolerably well-built town, beautifully situated at the north-western extremity of the lake of the same name, at the bottom of a steep hill laid out in vineyards and plantations. The river *Reuss*, which issues from the lake, divides the town into two parts; but the communication is rendered easy and agreeable by means of four bridges, one of which serves for the passage of carriages, while the other three are only calculated for foot-passengers. These bridges are the fashionable walks of the town, and are remarkable for their length. Like most others in *Switzerland*, they are built of wood, closed in on each side, with windows to admit the light, and covered at the top. These bridges afford, from their peculiar construction, most beautiful and commanding views of the romantic scenery of the circumjacent country, and are decorated with coarse paintings. The houses of *Lucerne* are well-built; and the streets are clean and spacious. The cathedral and *Jesuits'* church are the only public buildings worthy observation; in the former is an organ of a fine tone and most extraordinary size. The inhabitants of this town, who scarcely exceed 3000 in number, have no manufactures of consequence, and very little commerce; and there are few places where learning meets with less encouragement, and consequently is less cultivated.

PAYS DE VAUD.

This canton which, till very recently, composed the southern division of *Berne*, is bounded on the north by the principality of *Neufchatel*; on the east by the canton of *Friburg*; on the south by the lake of *Geneva*; and on the west by *France*. It extends upwards of 40 miles from north to south and nearly 30 from east to west. The

The country is fertile and pleasant; and the form of government is, in most respects, similar to that of Berne: but the inhabitants are chiefly attached to the church of Rome. The only place worthy of notice is

Lausanne, a considerable town, situated about a mile and a half from the northern coast of the lake of Geneva. It is built upon such a steep ascent and such very uneven ground, that in some places the horses cannot, without great difficulty, draw up a carriage; and foot-passengers ascend to the upper part of the town by steps, from the heights of which the prospects are very grand and extensive. The town-house and the other public buildings are splendid: here is a famous university. The situation of this town is delightful, in a very pure and healthy air; and the circumjacent country produces all the necessities, and most of the luxuries, of life.

ST. GALL.

This canton is comprised of several detached counties and states, and was first erected into a canton by the French, in 1798. It comprehends the lands of the abbey and city of St. Gall, the counties of Tokenburg, Sargans, Wordenburg, Saxe, and the Rhinthal. It is bounded on the north by the canton of Thurgau; on the east by the Rhine, which divides it from the Tyrol; on the south by the Grisons; and on the west by Glaris and Zurich. It is upwards of 50 miles in length, but of very unequal breadth. The country has a varied appearance, being in some places mountainous and rugged, and in others fertile and pleasant, producing all the necessities of life. The government is of the oligarchic kind. The chief places are,

1. *St. Gall*, a fine city, delightfully situated in an extensive valley, surrounded with mountains, which are cultivated to their summits. The streets are spacious, and the houses large, commodious, and clean-looking. Besides the venerable abbey, this town contains six churches. The inhabitants are uncommonly industrious, and carry on an extensive commerce, arising from their manufactures of linen, muslin, and embroidery. To the abbey there belongs an extensive library, to which the world is indebted for the preservation of the writings of several of the fathers of the Christian church, copies of which were found here in 1421.

2. *Rhinick*, the capital of the Rhinthal, a considerable town situated upon the Rhine, where, after its long northern course, it begins to take a westerly direction. The town contains nothing worthy particular notice; but it has a considerable commerce, arising from its fine situation for trade.

SCHAFFHAUSEN,

The smallest canton of Switzerland, from which it is detached by the Rhine, being situated in Germany. It is bounded on the north, east, and west, by a part of the kingdom of Baden; and on the south by the Rhine; and is about fifteen miles in length, and three in breadth: and contains seventeen parishes, and ten bailiwicks. The government is republican, under a burgomaster and council, elected annually. The religion is the reformed. The chief products of the country are grain and wine, considerable quantities of which are exported. The only town is

Schaffhausen, a considerable place, situated upon the Rhine, over which was a noted bridge of only one arch, that was burnt by the French when they evacuated this town, after having been defeated by the Austrians, August 13th, 1799. The town, most probably, owed its origin to the interruption of the navigation of the Rhine at the cataract of Lauffen. It is tolerably well built, and carries on an extensive trade.

SCHWEITZ.

This canton is bounded on the north by Zurich; on the east by Glaris; on the south by Uri; and on the west by Lucerne, Zug, and Zurich. It extends about 25 miles in length, and 15 in breadth, and is chiefly composed of pasture land, raises very little corn, and has no wine; but the soil, though naturally sterile, has been improved by the inhabitants to an astonishing degree of fertility. The government is democratic, every male above sixteen having a vote in the assemblies of the state. This canton, together with those of Uri and Underwalden, were the first that threw off the Austrian yoke, January 13, 1308. The only place worthy the name of a town in this canton is

Schweitz, the capital, situated on an easy ascent, about three miles from the lake of the same name, at the foot of two high, sharp, and rugged rocks. The houses are simple in their construction; convenience, and not ornament, being the principal object of the inhabitants. The church, which is a large magnificent building, stands in the centre of the place; and near it the houses are contiguous to each other; but in the other parts, they are prettily dispersed amidst lawns and meadows, and sheltered by groves of trees.

SOLEURE,

One of the finest cantons, is bounded on the north by that of Basil; on the east by Aargau and Lucerne; on the south by Berne; and on the

the west by France. Its length from north to south is about 40 miles, and its breadth 15. This country is remarkable for its riches and fertility; and though in many places rocky, yet it is generally well cultivated. The government is aristocratical, the sovereign power being vested in the great council. The inhabitants are almost all Roman Catholics. The principal place is

Soleure, a considerable town, seated upon the river Aar, which here expands into a noble river, 18 miles north of Berne. The houses are well built, and the streets spacious; but the chief ornament of the town is the church of St. Urs, a new and elegant fabric, begun in 1762, and finished in 1772. It consists of a handsome portico, is surmounted by a fine tower, and two beautiful fountains ornament it in front: it cost £80,000 sterling. Here are some manufactures; and this town carries on a considerable trade, the river being navigable into the Rhine. The population has been estimated at upwards of 4000.

TESSIN.

This canton is chiefly composed of what were, till recently, termed the Italian bailliages. It is bounded on the north by the canton of Uri and the Grisons, on the east by the Grisons, on the south by the kingdom of Italy, and on the west by the Valais. Its extent has not been accurately ascertained. This country is extremely rocky and mountainous; but the valleys are amazingly fertile, producing in abundance all the necessities of life. The government is democratical. The chief places are,

1. *Bellinzona*, the capital of the canton, a small neat town, situated upon the river Tessin, at a short distance from its junction with the lake Maggiore. The houses are indifferently built; but a want of regularity and cleanliness of appearance indicates the vicinity of Italy.

2. *Lugano*, another small town, beautifully situated on the curve of a bay, on the western side of a lake bearing its name. It is the centre of the commerce between Italy and Switzerland, over the passes of the mountains of St. Gothard and Bernard. Most of the houses are built of tuffstone. The inhabitants are said to exceed 8000.

3. *Locarno*, situated near a lake of the same name, formerly had a port capable of containing large barks, but it is now choked up by the sands brought down from the mountains by the torrent Maggia. Part of the town is built on piazzas, in the form of a crescent, with two wings; and in the front is a public walk, lined with trees. It contains about 1500 souls, three convents, and a Franciscan monastery, perched upon a rock,

which overlooks the town and surrounding country.

THURGAU, OR THURGOVIA,

Formerly an extensive bailiwick, but now a canton of this country, is bounded on the north and east by the Rhine and the lake of Geneva; on the south by St. Gall, and on the west by Zurich and Schaffhausen. It extends about 25 miles from east to west, and 15 from north to south; and is divided into fifty parishes, which are populous and well cultivated, and comprehend a number of small towns, and more than 170 villages, containing a variety of handsome chateaux. About one-third of the inhabitants are Catholics, the rest are Calvinists. The government is of the oligarchical form. The only town worthy description is

Frauenfeld, a neat and handsome town, situated 14 miles south-west of the city of Constance. From 1712, till the recent revolution, the general diets of the Swiss cantons assembled in this town. The houses are indifferently built, but the streets are spacious and regular. The public buildings are not remarkable.

UNDERWALDEN,

Situated nearly in the centre of Switzerland, is bounded on the north by Lucerne, on the east by Uri, on the south by the Valais, and on the west by Berne. It extends about 25 miles in length, and 17 in breadth, and is divided into two valleys, which are separated by a large forest of oaks. The government of this canton is vested in a grand council, who are elected annually. The inhabitants profess the Romish faith; and of all the people of Switzerland, they are the most honoured and respected by the other cantons for their courage, love of liberty, joined to a strict concord and simplicity of manners. The only town deserving notice is

Stantz, a considerable town, beautifully situated at the foot of a mountain called Stantzburg, at a small distance from the lake of Lucerne. The houses are very neat; and the surrounding country is beautifully interspersed with cottages. The church is a fine building, supported by magnificent columns; and the town-house is a noble edifice. Here are numerous fountains.

URI.

This canton is bounded on the north by Schweiz, on the east by Glaris and the Grisons, on the south by Tessin and the Valais, and on the west by the Valais and Underwalden; being about 60 miles in length, and 28 in breadth. It was in this canton that the first principles of the Swiss independence broke out, headed by the celebrated

celebrated William Tell. The government is entirely democratical, and similar to some of those already described. The inhabitants are a frank and honest people, professing the Romish faith. The chief town is

Altorf, situated in a narrow vale, almost entirely surrounded by stupendous mountains. It is a clean little town, well built, and full of inhabitants. The tops of the houses are covered with large stones in order to prevent the roofs being carried away by the violent hurricanes which frequently occur in this mountainous country. This town is seated near the estuary of the river Rut into the lake of the four cantons; and it was in this place that the tyrant Gesler exposed his hat to be saluted.

ZUG,

One of the smallest cantons in this country, is bounded on the north by Zurich, on the east and south by Schweitz, and on the west by Lucerne. It is about 10 miles in length, and nearly of a similar breadth; but the fertility of the soil fully compensates for its narrow limits: the mountains abound in excellent pastures, and the plains are covered with corn, vines, and fruit-trees. The government is democratical, and the religion the Roman Catholic.

Zug, the capital, is a small but well built town, pleasantly situated in a fertile valley on the borders of a lake of the same name. It has two churches, a convent, town-house, arsenal, corn magazine, college, &c. The houses are neat and very commodious; and the inhabitants do not exceed 3000.

ZURICH.

This canton is bounded on the north by the Rhine and the canton of Thurgau, on the east by Thurgau and St. Gall, on the south by Schweitz and Zug, and on the west by Berne and Aargau. It extends about 50 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The country in general is naturally sterile and mountainous; but the industry of the inhabitants is so great, that it yields abundance of corn and wine. The government is a mixture of aristocracy and democracy; the inhabitants being divided into 13 tribes, elect a council of 200 members, who appoint a senate of 50 of their number, in which the executive administration is vested. The religion is the reformed. The towns are numerous, but, excepting the capital, unimportant.

Zurich is situated at the northern extremity of the lake of its name, 40 miles S.E. of Basil. It is divided into two parts by the river Limmat, and is one of the largest cities in Switzerland; but the streets are narrow, and the houses high.

Among the public erections may be noticed a beautiful state-house, an orphan-house, an hospital for incurables, and another for the sick of all nations, which usually contains 6 or 700 patients. In the arsenal, which is very extensive, is shewn the arrow with which the noted William Tell shot the Austrian governor Gesler; and in the public library is a manuscript of some excellent letters written by the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey to the reformer Bullingen, in elegant Latin and German. In 1788 this city contained 10,559 inhabitants.

REPUBLIC OF VALAIS.

This tract of country is bounded on the north by the canton of Berne, on the west by that of Tessin, on the south by the kingdom of Italy, and on the west by France. It extends about 100 miles from east to west, but is not more than 30 from north to south. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Valais, which are separated by the river Morges. The Upper, which has jurisdiction over the Lower Valais, is subdivided into seven independent *dixains*, or commonwealths, and the Lower into three, whence originated the term *dixain*, each being a tenth part of the whole. The bishop of Sion was formerly absolute sovereign over this country; but his authority is now nearly abolished, and the chief power is vested in a landshauptman, who is elected or confirmed every two years by the diet, which is composed of delegates from each of the commonwealths, or *dixains*, who meet twice a year in the majoria house at Sion. The inhabitants are subject to goiters, or wens, that grow from the throat, and often increase to an enormous size. Idiocy also remarkably abounds among them. The chief towns are,

1. *Sion*, or *Sitten*, the capital, situated upon a river of the same name, which afterwards falls into the Rhone. It contains six churches, with some convents, a college, and three palaces. It stands 48 miles S.W. of Berne, and is a very ancient town, having been the capital of the Seduni, who inhabited this country at the time of Julius Cæsar.

2. *Mastigny*, the capital of the Lower Valais, is a place greatly frequented by travellers. It is but indifferently built; and its chief dependence is derived from its great thoroughfare.

PRINCIPALITIES OF NEUCHÂTEL AND VALENTIG.

These territories, which, till 1807, formed a part of the dominions of the king of Prussia, have since been given to the French general Berthier, who is now called the prince of Neuchâtel, whose domains are bounded on the north and west

west by France, on the east by the cantons of Berne and Friburg, and on the south by the Pays de Vaud. They extend about 30 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. The district of Neuchâtel occupies all the lower grounds; but Valengin is totally enclosed within the Jura mountains. The government was, till the overthrow of Prussia, a limited monarchy; but now the prince is said to be in the possession of absolute power. The inhabitants are mostly Protestants. The chief places are,

1. *Neuchâtel*, a neat town, situated partly on a lake bearing its name, and partly on the declivity of Mount Jura, in consequence of which some of the streets are very steep. Many public works have been recently erected in this town at a great expence; but for these the inhabitants are indebted to a private individual, who, besides contributing upwards of £40,000 in his life-time towards adorning his native place, bequeathed upwards of £160,000 to it at his decease; with which a most elegant town-house has been erected, and several other public edifices are building. Here are some manufactures of printed linens and cottons. The inhabitants do not exceed 3000 individuals.

2. *Valengin*, situated upon the lake of Neuchâtel, about three miles from the town last mentioned, is but a small and insignificant place, containing nothing worthy particular notice.

Climate and Seasons.—To what has already been advanced on these subjects we now add, that this being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, which form an amphitheatre of more than 160 miles, the climate is consequently very severe in winter, the hills being covered with snow sometimes all the year long. In summer the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of these mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The valleys are warm, fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful here than the summer months. It is subject to rains and tempests; for which reason public granaries are every where erected to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

Soil and Face of the Country.—There is, probably, no country in the world where the advantages of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts,

the traveller is struck with admiration to observe rocks that were formerly barren now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of precipices so steep that a horse could not even mount them without great difficulty. In short, the inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction which soil, situation, and climate have thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country which Nature seems to have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren inaccessible rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow or ice. The valleys between these icy and snowy mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes, and from them vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitless spots beneath. In some parts is a regular gradation from extreme wildness to high cultivation; in others the transitions are very abrupt, and very striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and studded over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, pastures which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and snow.

Natural history does not afford any thing more curious than the origin of the glaciers, which are immense fields of ice, and usually rest on an inclined plane; being pushed forwards by the pressure of their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are intersected by large tranverse crevices, and present the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantastic shapes, observed at all heights, and in all situations, wherever the declivity is beyond 30 or 40 degrees.

Mr. Coxe, to whom the public are indebted for the most accurate and entertaining account of this romantic spot, thus describes the mode of travelling over the glaciers.

“We had each of us a long pole spiked with iron; and, in order to secure us as much as possible from slipping, the guides fastened to our shoes *crampons*, or small bars of iron, provided with four small spikes of the same metal. At other times, instead of *crampons*, we had large nails in our shoes, which more effectually answered our purpose. The difficulty of crossing these valleys of ice arises from the immense chasms. We rolled down large stones into several

ral of them; and the great length of time before they reached the bottom gave us some conception of their depth: our guides assured us, that in some places they are not less than 500 feet deep. I can no otherwise convey to you an image of this body of ice broken into irregular ridges and deep chasms, than by comparing it to a lake instantaneously frozen in the midst of a violent storm." In speaking of an unsuccessful attempt of some travellers to reach the summit of Mount Blanc, he presents to his readers a most horrid image of the danger of these chasms. "As they were returning in great haste (owing to the day being far advanced) one of the party slipped in attempting to leap over a chasm of ice. He held in his hand a long pole, spiked with iron, which he struck into the ice; and upon this he hung, dreadfully suspended for a few moments, until he was released by his companions."

The other and lower parts of Switzerland are very pleasant and fertile, being diversified with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. The mountains in these parts are but mole-hills in comparison of the others, there being neither snow nor ice on them in summer; and they frequently afford not only good pasturage, but arable ground.

Rivers.—The principal river of this country is the Rhine, of which an ample description has been given among the rivers of Germany; The Aar, which rises at the foot of Mount St. Gothard, after passing through the lakes of Brienz and Thun, visits Berne, and soon afterwards is joined by the Sanne; it then takes a northerly direction, and falls into the Rhine near Lanshat. The Reus also rises in Mount St. Gothard, and, after running through the whole length of the lake of Lucerne, falls into the Aar. The Rhone likewise has its source at the western foot of Mount St. Gothard, and afterwards falls into the lake of Geneva: besides which here are the Tessin, the Oglio, the Limmat, and a number of others too numerous to detail.

Lakes.—Among the almost innumerable lakes of this country, is that of Constance, which extends nearly 45 British miles in length, and in some places 15 in breadth. This beautiful expanse of water is by the Germans also styled the Boden Zee. Towards the north-west it is divided into two parts, called the Upper and Lower lake, the latter of which contains the isle of Reichenau. Like all other lakes of Switzerland, it is deeper in the summer than in the winter, owing to the melting of the snows, and is remarkable for producing large red trout. The lake of Geneva extends in the form of a crescent, about 40 British miles in length, and 9 at its greatest breadth. The colour of the water is extremely beautiful,

clear, and at a distance seems of a fine blue. The depth is various; the greatest yet found is 160 fathoms: its borders are enriched with a variety and profusion of sublime prospects; and the beauties of this lake have been celebrated by Rousseau.

The lake of Lucerne is divided into three divisions, from whence it is frequently denominated the lake of three cantons; it being partly situated in those of Lucerne, Schweitz, and Uri. With respect both to its extent, being 20 miles in length, and the beauties of its scenery, it is one of the finest lakes in Switzerland. The lake of Zurich is about 30 miles long, but in no place more than 3 wide. It is of an oblong form; and its banks are richly cultivated, and beautifully stocked with neat and picturesque villages. The lake of Thun is about 12 miles in length, and 3 where broadest. It is surrounded with high mountains, and is said to be of great depth. It abounds with fish; and is greatly frequented on account of its romantic scenery.

Mountains.—In this mountainous country, where Nature is all upon a grand scale, Mount Blanc is particularly distinguished from other mountains, by having its summits and sides clothed to a considerable depth with a mantle of snow, almost without the intervention of the least rock to break the glare of the white appearance. According to the calculation of M. de Luc (by whose improvement of the barometer elevations are taken with a degree of accuracy before unattainable), the height of this mountain above the level of the sea is 2391½ French toises, or 15,304 English feet; or, according to Sir George Shuckburgh, 15,662 feet, which gives a difference of only 358 feet. The peaks of Teneriffe and Ætna have been frequently supposed to be the highest points of the globe; but, from the most accurate observations, it will be found that Mount Blanc is of much more considerable elevation, and that there are no mountains (except those in America, particularly Chimboraco, the highest part of the Cordilleras, the elevation of which, according to Condamine, surpasses 3000 toises, or 19,200 feet, but according to others, 20,608 feet) which are equal to the altitude of Mont Blanc.

All the mountainous ridges in Switzerland have the name of Alps, as the Maritime, the Lepentine, and the Rhætian Alps.

That chain which pervades Switzerland, from mount Sanetz in the south-west, towards the sources of the Inn on the north-east, was known by the appellation of the Helvetian Alps. The German writers admit of more minute divisions; as the Tridentine Alps above Trent; and the Noric Alps above the source of the river

Tajamento.

Tajamento. The extent of this vast course of mountains may be computed at about 550 British miles.

The central part of this magnificent chain may be considered as divided into two ridges, running almost parallel from the south-west to the north-east. The first ridge is that of the Helvetian Alps, of which the most conspicuous summits are the Gemmi, or Guemmi, the Schellenhorn, the Blumlis, the Geisshorn, the Jungfrau, or Virgin Horn, the Eiger, the tremendous Schreckhorn, or Peak of Terror, the Grimsel, the Furca, the extensive and somewhat devious ridges of Mount St. Gothard, the Badur, and the glaciers to the north of the further Rhine. Of this chain the St. Gothard has been long considered as one of the principal summits, because important rivers run from its vicinity in every direction; but this circumstance cannot be admitted to argue for its superior height, after the accurate observations of Saussure; and rivers often spring from an inconsiderable elevation, passing in the bottoms between high mountains. Most of these mountains are composed of red and white granite.

Forests.—In some parts of Switzerland there are extensive forests of oak and fir-trees, which afford abundance of timber for the use of the inhabitants: in some places, however, it is very scarce, so as not even to afford a sufficiency for fuel, in which case they are obliged to burn sheep's dung, and a kind of heath, or small shrubs.

Animals.—The horses of Switzerland, are esteemed for vigour and spirit, and the cattle often attain to a great size. Among the animals peculiar to the Alps may be first named the ibex, bouquelin, or goat of the rocks. This animal resembles the common goat, but the horns are uncommonly long and thick, and of such strength as to save him in headlong descents from precipices. The hair is long and ash-coloured, with a black list along the back. The female is one-third less than the male, and her horns are small, while those of the male are about two feet six inches in length. The bouquelin will mount a perpendicular rock of fifteen feet at three springs, bounding like an elastic body struck against a hard substance. In the day he seeks the highest summits, but in the night the nearest woods, browsing on aromatic plants and dwarf plants, and in the winter on lichens. His common cry is a sharp short whistle. The chase is rashly dangerous, and exposed to many accidents. Another singular animal is the chamois, a species of the genus of antelope, and is commonly seen in herds of twenty or thirty, with a sentinel, who alarms them by a shrill cry. The colour is

a yellowish brown, but they sometimes occur speckled. The food is the lichen, with shoots of pine or fir. The blood of these animals is of so hot a nature, that some of the mountaineers, who are much subject to pleurisies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The marmot is common on the Swiss mountains. In summer it feeds upon Alpine plants, and lives in societies, digging dwellings in the ground for summer, and others for winter. At the beginning of October, having provided hay, they retreat to the latter, where they remain torpid till the spring. The skin of this little animal is used for furs. The marmot may be tamed, and shews considerable docility. The size is between that of the hare and the rabbit.

The birds of this country are the same as those of other mountainous regions. Among them is the vulture, called also the golden or bearded vulture, the head and neck being covered with feathers; it might be classed with the eagles, were it not for the form of the body and shape of the beak. It inhabits the highest mountains, forming its nest in inaccessible rocks, and preying on the chamois, white hare, marmot, and sometimes on kids and lambs. The red-legged crow is also an inhabitant of the mountains.

Vegetables.—Switzerland produces wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp, plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chesnuts: the parts toward Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and most of the cantons contain abundance of timber.

Minerals.—The metals of this country being generally found to be hard and very brittle, the only mines that are wrought are those of iron; but, among the mountains, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral water, are commonly met with.

Curiosities.—This country abounds in natural and artificial curiosities; continually presenting to the eye of the tourist a succession of precipices, glaciers, torrents, and cataracts. About two miles and a half below Schaffhausen, is the celebrated fall of the Rhine, down which the river dashes, with tremendous impetuosity, upon the rocks beneath; the perpendicular height of which Mr. Coxe thinks may exceed 60 feet, where the river is 300 feet wide.

Among the artificial curiosities is an extraordinary hermitage, two leagues from Friburg, formed by a single hermit about a hundred years ago, who laboured upon it for the space of 25 years. It is the greatest curiosity, perhaps, of the kind in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour, 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments.

apartments, with the seats, benches, flooring and altar of the chapel all cut out of the solid rock.

At Schaffhausen was a very curious bridge, the history of which is rather remarkable. The river being particularly rapid had destroyed several stone bridges of the strongest construction; the last was carried away in 1754, when the magistrates being at a loss how to replace it, a common carpenter of Appenzel engaged to throw a wooden bridge of a single arch across the river, where it is 400 feet wide. This offer, though it astonished those to whom it was made, was, in part, accepted. They employed him in the undertaking; but, distrustful of his abilities to execute what he had proposed, ordered him to make use of the centre pier of the old bridge as a prop for the new erection. Accordingly he was obliged to obey; but he contrived to leave it a matter of doubt whether it was supported by the middle pier, or not. A man of the slightest weight might feel it almost tremble under him; yet waggons heavily laden passed over it. The sides and top were covered; and the road was not carried, as usual, over the top of the arch, but, if the expression may be used, let into the middle of it, and there suspended. The ingenious architect, whose name was Ulric Grubenman, was totally unacquainted with the theory of mechanics. This bridge was finished in three years, at the expence of nearly £8000 sterling; but was burnt by the French, April 13th, 1799, in their retreat from Germany, after having been defeated by the Austrians.

At Lucerne is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, the ingenious production of General Pfiffer, a native of the above-mentioned town, and an officer in the French service. It is a model in relief, and well deserves the attention of the curious traveller. It is twelve feet long and nine and a half broad, and is composed principally of a mastic of charcoal, lime, clay, and a thin coat of wax, and is so hard as to be trod upon without receiving the least damage. The whole is beautifully painted in different colours, representing the objects as they appear in nature; not only the forests of oak, beech, pine, and other trees are distinguished, but the strata of the several rocks are marked, each being shaped on the spot, and formed with granite, gravel, and such other natural substances as compose the original mountains. The plan is indeed so minutely exact, that it not only comprises all the mountains, rivers, lakes, roads, and forests, but every cottage, torrent, and path, if accurately examined, is found to be contained in it. The level is taken from the lake of Lucerne, which, according to M. de Saussure, is about 1408 feet

above the level of the Mediterranean. At the famous pass of Pierre Pertuis, the road is cut through a solid rock, full fifty feet thick. The height of the arch is twenty-six, and the breadth twenty-five feet.

Antiquities.—There are few ancient monuments in Switzerland; and these consist chiefly of some remains of the Romans, at Aventicum and Vindemissa. Some also occur at Ebrodunum, or Yverdon; and at Baden are the ancient *Thermae Helveticae*. Of the middle ages are many castles, churches, and monasteries; the most noble among the latter being the abbey of St. Gall, the library of which supplied the manuscripts of three or four classical authors no where else to be found.

Manners and Customs.—The Swiss are a brave, honest, hospitable, and hardy people, very true to their engagements, friendly and humane. Their amiable manners have long excited applause, from their moral uniformity, and frank independence. The writings of Rousseau, and other celebrated authors, have depicted them in so many points of view, that the theme has become trivial. Though moderate in diet, the Swiss are attached to wine, which produces gaiety, and not irritation. The houses of the peasants are generally constructed of wood, in the most simple form, with stair-cases on the outside; yet their clean and neat appearance singularly coincides with the picturesque character of the country. The dress of the lower ranks is little subject to the laws of fashion; and in many cantons there are regulations to prevent idle ornament. Among the superior classes, the manners may be considered as partly German and partly French; but it may be imagined that at present the latter preponderate. In general the Swiss are remarkable for an intense attachment to their native country; and there are few who do not return there to terminate their existence. This impression is almost irresistible, and liable to be awakened by the most trifling circumstances. Hence, in the French armies, the tune called *Rance des Vaches*, often sung by the Swiss milk-maids when they went to the pastures, was carefully interdicted, because it melted the rough Swiss soldier into tears, and seldom failed to produce desertion. This unconquerable passion seems to arise in part from a moral sensibility to the enchanting ease and frankness of the native manners; and in part from the picturesque features of the country, the verdant hills contrasted with Alpine snows, and delicious vales watered by transparent streams; scenes no where else to be discerned in such perfection, and which must powerfully affect the imagination, the parent of the passions. In their persons, they are

are generally tall, robust, and well made; but their complexions are none of the best. The women are said to be generally handsome and well shaped, sensible, and modest; yet frank, easy, and agreeable in conversation. Their costume is rather peculiar, particularly their outer garments, which consist chiefly of long stays, fantastically laced in front, to which are attached large sleeves and short aprons; but these are now only to be met with in the interior of the country, between the mountains, where the inhabitants have but little commerce with the world. The annexed plate will convey the best ideas on this subject. Silk, lace, and several articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in most of the cantons; and even the head-dresses of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited; and hence their diversions are chiefly of the athletic and martial kind, the youth being diligently trained to all the active exercises, such as running, jumping, wrestling, throwing the hammer, and shooting both with the cross bow and musquet.

The disease called the *goiters* is more frequent in the Valais than any other part of Switzerland. This loathsome distemper affects, more or less, the greater number of the inhabitants. It is an excrescence in the neck, that grows from the throat, which, though in some no larger than an egg, in others hangs half-way down the breast, in appearance the most disgusting that can be imagined. The causes which have produced this evil have excited the inquiries both of the naturalist and physician; and on this head many different opinions have been formed. The following are the observations made by Mr. Coxe on this curious subject:

"The notion that snow water occasions these excrescences is totally void of foundation. For on that supposition, why are they common in the midland and lower parts, and extremely unfrequent in the higher regions of Switzerland? and particularly, what reason can be assigned why the natives of those places that lie contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what descends immediately from those immense reservoirs of ice and snow, are not subject to this malady? Why are the inhabitants of those countries in which there is no snow afflicted with it? For these guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the island of Sumatra, and at Patna and Purnea in the East Indies, where snow is unknown.

"The springs that supply drink to the natives are impregnated with a calcareous matter, called in Switzerland *tuf*, nearly similar to the incrustations of Matlock, in Derbyshire, so minutely dissolved as not to affect the transparency

of the water. Will it be deemed improbable, that the impalpable particles of this substance, thus dissolved, should introduce themselves into the glands of the throat, and produce goiters? I ground this opinion on the following observations and facts.

"To speak in general—During my travels through Europe, I never failed to observe that tuf, or this calcareous deposition, abounds in all those districts wherein goiters are common. I noticed goiterous persons and much tuf in Derbyshire, in various parts of the Valais, in the Valteline, at Lucerne, Friburg, and Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in several places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dresden, in the valleys of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin, and Milan.

"To descend to particular instances—The inhabitants of Friburg, Berne, and Lucerne, are much subject to guttural excrescences. With respect to Friburg, I observed that one of the principal springs which supplies the town with water issues from a neighbouring stone quarry, and has formed large depositions of tuf on the rock from which it bubbles. The pipes also which convey water to the public fountains at Berne are extremely charged with the same calcareous sediment; and a gentleman, on whose veracity I can depend, assured me, that he is subject to a small swelling in the throat, which usually increases in winter, when he is chiefly resident at Berne, and diminishes in summer, on his removal to other places, where the waters are not loaded with tuf.

"I was, moreover, informed by General Pfiffer, that at Lucerne all the waters, excepting one spring, are impregnated with tuf, and that the natives who dwell near that spring are much less subject to goiters than the other inhabitants; that the same difference is observed among the members of the same family, between those who drink no water but what is drawn from that spring, and the others who do not use that precaution. The general shewed me also the tin vessel in which water was every morning boiled for his use, and which was so speedily and thickly incrustated, as to render it necessary to have it cleansed twice a week. The water which yields this deposition is as transparent as crystal.

"I may add likewise, that I visited many places which border upon those districts wherein goiters and tuf are frequent, and which have precisely the same situation and climate, yet whose inhabitants were not goiterous, and where I did not observe any appearances of tuf.

"But the strongest proof in favour of this opinion is derived from the following facts: A surgeon whom I met at the baths of Leuk informed me, that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions.

cretions of tuf-stone from several goiters; and that from one, in particular, which suppurated, he had taken several flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He added that the same substance is found in the stomachs of cows, and in the goiterous tumours, to which even the dogs of the country are subject. The same gentleman assured me, that in the course of his extensive practice, he had diminished and cured the goiters of many young persons by emollient liquors and external applications; that his principal method, in order to prevent them in future, consisted in removing the patients from the places where the springs are impregnated with tuf; and if that could not be contrived, by forbidding the use of water which was not purified. He confirmed the report, that infants are occasionally born with guttural swellings, particularly those whose parents are goiterous; and remarked, that one of his own children had at its birth a goiter as large as an egg, although neither he nor his wife, who were both foreigners, were afflicted with that malady. He had dissipated it by external remedies; and since that period, had invariably prohibited his family from tasting the spring waters, unless they were distilled, or mixed with wine or vinegar; by which means he was able to preserve them from those tumours in the throat that were extremely common among the natives of the town which he inhabited."

Besides the goiters with which the inhabitants of the Valais are affected, idiotism greatly abounds among them. "I saw," says Mr. Coxe, "many instances of both kinds; as I passed through Sion, some idiots were basking in the sun, with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the most affecting spectacle of intellectual imbecility that can possibly be conceived." It has been asserted that the people very much respect these idiots, and even consider them as *blessings from heaven*. The common people, it is certain, esteem them so, for they call them, "*souls of God without sin*"; and many parents prefer these idiot children to those whose understandings are perfect, because, as they are incapable of intentional criminality, they consider them as certain of happiness in a future state. Nor is this opinion entirely without its good effects, as it disposes the parents to pay greater attention to such helpless beings. These idiots are suffered to marry, as well among themselves as with others.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The principal manufactures are tobacco and snuff, linen of several sorts, lace, thread, silk and worsted stockings, neck-cloths, cotton stuffs, gloves, handkerchiefs, silks of several sorts, gold and silver,

brocades, hats, paper, leather, earthenware, porcelain, toys, watches, clocks, hardware, &c. The trade is greatly promoted by a number of navigable lakes and rivers, which enable them to export cheese, butter, sheep, horses, black cattle, hides, skins, &c., for which they receive corn and salt, with some American and East and West Indian produce, though in no great abundance, from whence it is inferred that the balance of trade is greatly in favour of this country.

Language, Literature, &c.—The language of Switzerland is a dialect of the German; but the French is much diffused, and is often employed by their best authors. In the most southern parts bordering on Italy, the Valteline, and other territories acquired from Milan, the Italian is the common tongue. Among the Grisons in Engadina, and in some other parts, is spoken what is called the Romansh, which seems immediately derived from the Latin. The Valais, or that part of Switzerland watered by the Rhone, has also a particular dialect; and at the city of Sion the French begins to be spoken, as it is also the prevalent language in the beautiful canton of the Pays de Vaud.

Since the restoration of letters, and the reformation of religion, the literary annals of Switzerland boast of many eminent names; as the reformer Ulric Zwingli, born at Wildhausen; De Watt, or Vadianus, a native of St. Gall; Bullinger; Oporinus the printer; Conrad Gesner, born at Zurich in 1516, who published an universal library, and some treatises on natural history; and some others. Among the writers of the last century may be named Bernoulli, the mathematician, a native of Basil; Scheuchzer, the natural historian; Haller; John Gesner, the natural philosopher; Solomon Gesner, the poet; Bonnet, Hirzel, and Zimmermann, physicians; Rousseau, and Necker, natives of Geneva; Lavater, the physiognomist; Euler, the mathematician, &c.

There is an university of some reputation at Lausanne, and another at Basil, with colleges at Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne. As the time of the inhabitants of this country is not suffered to be wasted in games of chance, many of them employ their leisure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their understanding: hence the common people are much more intelligent than the same class in most other countries.

Religion.—The religion of the Swiss is in some parts the Roman Catholic, in others the reformed. Of the former persuasion are Uri, Schweitz, Unterwalden, cantons which founded the liberty of the country; with Zug, Lucerne, Friburg, Soleure, part of Glaris, and Appenzel: they contain six bishoprics, and one metropolitan see.

The reformed cantons are of the Calvinist or Presbyterian persuasion, being the rich and extensive canton of Berne, with Zurich, Basil, or according to the French enunciation, Basle, Schaffhausen, the greatest part of Glaris, and some portions of Appenzel. The country of the Grisons is chiefly inhabited by Protestants. The republic of the Valais has been the scene of atrocious persecutions on account of its disaffection from the Catholic faith; but the inhabitants, to the amount of about 100,000, now profess the Roman Catholic system. The two persuasions, however, live in the most amiable unity and moderation.

Army.—The military force was reckoned at about 20,000; but in the late struggle with France, this force appears to have been divided, and ineffectual. The Swiss regiments in foreign service were computed at twenty-nine; but they returned weakened in health and morals, and seldom proved serviceable to the state. The permission to serve in foreign countries has, though a moral deformity, arisen from the poverty and population of Switzerland, and was strengthened by the ambition and curiosity of the youthful inhabitants.

By the constitution of 1803, the national force of 15,203 men is thus apportioned:

1 Aargau	contributed . . .	1205 men.
2 Appenzel		486
3 Basil		409
4 Berne		2202
5 Friburg		620
6 Glaris		241
7 Grisons		1200
8 Lucerne		867
9 Pays de Vaud		1482
10 St. Gall		1315
11 Schaffhausen		233
12 Schweitz		301
13 Soleure		452
14 Tessin		902
15 Thurgau		835
16 Underwalden		191
17 Uri		118
18 Zug		125
19 Zurich		1929

Revenue.—Before the French extortion, the revenue of Switzerland was computed at somewhat more than a million sterling, arising from moderate taxation, from tolls, national domains, and foreign subsidies. The cantons of Berne and Zurich were considered as opulent; while in others the resources hardly equalled the expenditure.

Constitution and Government.—The old constitution and government of Switzerland were

very complicated, from the cantons, though belonging to the same body, being partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton was absolute in its own jurisdiction; but those of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, were aristocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne excepted. Those of Uri, Schweitz, Underwalden, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, were democratical. Basil, though it had the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclined to a democracy. But even these aristocracies and democracies differed in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real interests of the people appeared to have been much attended to, and they enjoyed a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotic governments. Each canton prudently reconciled itself to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented on the basis of affection a system of mutual defence.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehended three divisions. The first were the Swiss, properly so called; the second, the Grisons, or the states confederated with the Swiss for their common protection; the third, those præfectures which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserved each its particular magistrates. Every canton formed within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arose that might affect the whole confederacy, it was referred to the general diet, which sat at Baden, where, each canton having a vote, every question was decided by the majority. The general diet consisted of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bienne. It is observed by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public are indebted for the best account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happiness and content more universally prevail among the people. For whether the government be aristocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states (which, of all others, are usually the most tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seem to ensure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with such wisdom

wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little have the Swiss, of late years, been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that since the firm and complete establishment of their general confederacy, till the unprovoked invasion of their country by the French, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy; and have had no hostile commotions among themselves, that were not very soon happily terminated.

In the year 1798, Switzerland, obliged to yield to the intrigues and arms of France, abolished the old constitution, and framed another on the French model; by which the whole country was declared a republic, one and indivisible, and the government vested in two councils and a directory. But in the year 1802 this constitution was likewise abolished by the authority of the first consul of France, and another presented to them for their acceptance; but which the great majority of them rejected, as still more repugnant to their political principles and habits than the former. Their opposition was so determined, that they had recourse to arms; and the first consul thought proper to withdraw his constitution, and offer them a new one, which they consented to accept. By this, as under the original constitution of Switzerland, each of the cantons has its own distinct internal government, a short account of which has been already given in the description of each canton; while the general government of the country is administered by a diet, to which every canton sends a member, and which assembles annually at Freyburg, Berne, Soleure, Basil, Zurich, and Lucerne, in rotation. The president of the diet is a kind of chief magistrate, and is styled Landamman of Switzerland. The nineteen deputies, of which the diet consists, have, in the whole, twenty-five voices; the deputies of those cantons the population of which exceeds 100,000 (viz. Berne, Zurich, Leman, Aargau, St. Gall, and the Grisons) having two voices, those of the other cantons only one. The diet assembles on the first Monday of June, and, in the ordinary course of affairs, continues its sittings during one month. It decides on war and peace, and concludes treaties of alliance and commerce; but, on these subjects, there must be a concurrence of three-fourths of the cantons.

History.—The earliest accounts which the page of history presents of this country, commence as early as the first century before the Christian æra, when we find the natives involved in frequent wars with the Romans, by whom the Helvetii and the Rætii, two of the most powerful tribes, were entirely subjugated. In the beginning of the fourth century, the Allemanni, a

German tribe, made an irruption into Switzerland, occupied the country, and (as is supposed) extirpated the Helvetii. Soon after, the western part of Switzerland was conquered by the Franks, and annexed to Burgundy; while the western part, or the Grisons, was subject to Theodoric the Goth, and other Italian princes. In the seventh century Christianity was introduced, chiefly, it is said, through the instrumentality of two Irish monks, Columbanus and Gallus. At the beginning of the tenth century, that part which was occupied by the Allemanni was invaded by the Huns, or Ugurs, who in particular ravaged the abbey of St. Gall, at that early period famous for its power and literature: but they were defeated and driven out by Conrad, king of Burgundy, in 928. Soon after the commencement of the eleventh century, the districts of Switzerland began to be regarded as a part of the German empire; and in the two following centuries, they gradually became subject to the house of Hapsburg, the descendants of which have long been distinguished in Europe by being placed at the head of the German empire and house of Austria. The inhabitants of this country continued under this government till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with so much rigour, that they petitioned against the cruelty of their governors. This served only to double the hardships of the people; and one of Albert's Austrian governors, Gesler, in the wantonness of tyranny, set up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much respect as to himself. The famous William Tell being observed to pass frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Gesler asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended for his (Gesler's) heart, if he had killed his son. Tell was condemned to prison upon this; but, making his escape, he watched his opportunity, and shot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundation of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event the revolt of the Swiss from the Austrian tyranny had been planned by some noble patriots among them. Their measures were so just, and their course so intrepid, that they soon effected an union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucern, Uri, Schweitz, and Unterwalden, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent successes of their arms against Albert, duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic

Helvetic union. They first conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itself in 1353; Freyburg and Soleure 130 years after; Basil and Schaffhausen in 1501; and Appenzel, in 1513, completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany, till, by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state.

Neufchatel, from the year 1707 to 1807, was under the dominion of the king of Prussia; but the inhabitants were free to serve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king had the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor; but the revenue he derived was not above £5000 yearly, great part of which was laid out on the roads and other public works of the country.

Towards the close of the year 1797, Switzerland fell a prey to the rapacity and ambition of France; the emissaries and partisans of which republic had prepared the way for the subjugation of the country, by exciting among the people a spirit of discontent against the government, especially in the aristocratic republics. That the aristocracies of Switzerland were not entirely blameless, either in their conduct towards their subjects or towards the French; may, perhaps, be true; but if the power of the state, and its very moderate emoluments, were in some, or perhaps the majority, of the cantons, monopolized by a few families, it must still be remembered that their authority was exercised with the utmost moderation, and that the people were contented and happy. The real views of the French directory, in their attack on Switzerland, however they might endeavour to colour them by pretending that they were invited by the people, and that their sole aim was to assert the cause of general liberty, no doubt were to give employment to, and procure pay and plunder for, their armies; as also to secure the command of a country, the possession of the important posts of which, in case of a renewal of hostilities with the empire, would both secure their frontier, and enable them to make the attack with much greater advantage.

The first act of hostility on the part of the French was the seizing of the Helvetic part of the bishopric of Basil, of which they took possession under some frivolous pretext, and contrary to an express treaty concluded with the Swiss in the year 1792. The Helvetic body, knowing they were too weak to resist, submitted patiently to this usurpation; but soon after an insurrection which took place in the Pays de

Vaud, and which, it is not improbable, was produced by the instigation of the agents of France, afforded an opportunity for an interference which soon terminated in the subjection of almost the whole of Switzerland to the French yoke, and almost the entire overthrow of its form of government. In the month of December, the French directory took upon them to demand of the government of Berne what they termed the restoration of the rights of that people, and the assembling of the states of the Pays de Vaud. This demand they immediately prepared to enforce by arms; and General Meynard was ordered to march with a body of 15,000 men to support the claims of the discontents in that country. The supreme council of Berne, fearful of entering into a contest with the powerful armies of France, on the 5th of January, 1798, issued a proclamation, enjoining the citizens of the Pays de Vaud to assemble in arms, to renew the oath of allegiance, to proceed to reform the abuses of the government, and to assert and re-establish all their ancient rights. The malcontents, however, encouraged by the protection of the French army, proceeded to open hostilities, and seized on the castle of Chignon. The government of Berne now had recourse to arms, and ordered a body of 20,000 troops, under the command of Colonel Weiss, to disperse the insurgents; but the contest was soon decided by the French army under General Meynard, which immediately advanced, while the Swiss retreated, and, by the beginning of February, had taken possession of the whole of the Pays de Vaud.

The council of Berne still attempted to negotiate with the French directory, but at the same time assembled an army of about 20,000 men, the command of which they gave to M. d'Erlach, formerly a field-marshal in the service of France. This force was joined by the quotas of the other Swiss cantons, amounting to about 5500 men. The directory required that the ancient magistrates of Berne should be dismissed from their offices, and the constitution of the state changed for one more agreeable to democratic principles and the new system of liberty and equality. These conditions the government of Berne absolutely refused to submit to, and sent orders to break off all farther negotiation. The directory, alarmed at this appearance of firmness and resistance, and fearing they were not sufficiently prepared, sent General Brune to take the command of their army in the Pays de Vaud, with orders to conclude an armistice, until he should receive a sufficient reinforcement. Brune, immediately upon his arrival, announced to the senate of Berne, that he came prepared to adjust all differences amicably, and requested that they would send commissioners

commissioners to treat with him. These were accordingly sent, and an armistice concluded for eight days. But on the 2d of March, two days, it is affirmed, before the truce agreed on had expired, the castle of Domach, at the northern extremity of the canton of Soleure, was attacked and carried by the French; and, at the same time, 13,000 men were marched under the walls of Soleure, which capitulated to General Schawenbourg on the first summons. Freyburg was immediately after reduced by General Brune, and the Swiss army was forced to retreat.

The French generals immediately advanced towards Berne, where all was confusion both in the city and in the army, the left division of which had mutinied, deserted their posts, and put to death some of their officers. The Swiss army was reduced by desertion to 14,000 men, exclusive of a rabble of undisciplined peasants, raised by the *landsturm*, or levy of the country *en masse*. About 8000 of the regular forces were stationed at Neweneg, and 6400 held the position of Frauenbrun, against which General Schawenbourg advanced from Soleure, at the head of 18,000 men. On the morning of the 5th of March, both posts were attacked by the French. The troops of Neweneg repulsed the enemy; but those at Frauenbrun, after a vigorous resistance, were compelled to retreat. M. d'Erlach rallied his men at Uteren, where a second engagement took place, but with no better success on the part of the Swiss. They afterwards, however, made a stand at Grauholtz, about a league and a half from Berne; but were thence driven to the gates of the capital, where, after another severe battle, they were entirely defeated; and, on the evening of the 5th, General Brune entered the city of Berne, by capitulation. The divisions of the Swiss army stationed at Neweneg and Guminen retreated; and the soldiers of the latter column, in a fit of rage and despair, murdered their officers, and, among others, their unfortunate general d'Erlach.

The defeat of the Bernese was followed by the submission of nearly the whole of Switzerland; though the democratic republics still made a stand, defeated General Schawenbourg, and forced him to retire with the loss of 3000 men, after he had consented to a treaty by which he engaged not to enter the smaller cantons.

After this revolution the Swiss confederacy changed its constitution, and even its name. Provincial governments, under the direction of the French generals, were established in the different districts, and the whole assumed the name of the Helvetic republic. Contributions and requisitions were levied, as usual, by the French commissioners, and the most shocking enormities perpetrated. During the campaign of 1799, the northern part of Switzerland became the seat of war between the Austrians and the French; and the cantons of Schaffhausen and Zurich, especially the latter, suffered the severest distress from the ravages of the contending armies.

When the country, however, was no longer exposed to the horrors of war, and especially after the conclusion of the peace of Luneville, Switzerland became gradually more reconciled to its new form of government. But this form not perfectly according with the views of Buonaparte, when he had become sovereign dictator in France, he proposed a new constitution to the Swiss, which was accepted by the senate, but gave such offence to the people in general that they flew to arms, appointed commanders, formed magazines, and took the field under several leaders, particularly Aloys Reding, who had distinguished himself in defending his country against the first invasion of the French. They defeated the French troops in several skirmishes, and, after an obstinate conflict under the walls of Berne, obliged that city to capitulate, and forced the members of the government in the interest of the French to retire to Lausanne. These abject creatures of France applied to the first consul, who immediately, in answer, signified his resolution of acting as *mediator*, assuring them that his mediation should be efficacious; requiring, at the same time, that deputies from the senate, and from each of the cantons, should meet at Paris, to assist in forming a government that might appear less objectionable to the people. The Swiss, fearing the consequences of further resistance, reluctantly acquiesced in the proposal: the deputies met at Paris, the new constitution already described was framed and accepted, Aloys Reding was appointed landamman of Switzerland, and on these terms tranquillity was restored to the country. Since this period no events have occurred worthy the notice of the historian.

CHAP. XI.

THE

FRENCH EMPIRE.

SECTION I.

General and Introductory Remarks—Origin and Names—Situation and Extent—Boundaries—Divisions, Chief Towns, &c.

THE country which now presents itself for our delineation, is one that has ever been famous in the annals of history, and which, for the last twenty years, from the events that have occurred in it, has engaged the attention, and excited the astonishment, of the whole civilized world; events which, in their consequences, have introduced a new æra into the modern history of Europe.

Origin and Names.—"France, deservedly celebrated amongst the most eminent European states, was probably," says Pinkerton, "known to the Phœnicians, though the superior fame of the metallic riches of Spain, have almost eclipsed their discovery of Gaul. In the year 600 before the birth of Christ, according to the chronology of Usher, the Phœnicians, sailing from Ionia, founded Massilia, or Marseilles; yet Herodotus, who flourished a century and a half after that period, shows so little knowledge of Gaul as to suppose that the Danube arose in the Pyrenees. The ancient inhabitants were the Celts, of whom even Aristotle seems only to have learned that they inhabited the region above Iberia, or Spain. The southern parts of Gaul became known at an early period to the Romans, who entered that region about 120 years before the Christian epoch, and soon afterwards founded the province termed *Gallia Bracata*; but the remainder of this large and fertile country was reserved for the discovery and conquest of Julius Cæsar. The ancients sometimes styled it the country of the Celts; but the only general name seems to have been *Gallia*, which, after the fall of the Roman empire, was supplanted by that of *Francia*, or *France*, because it was subdued and possessed by the Franks, an assemblage of tribes from Lower Germany."

Situation and Extent.—This extensive empire is situated between 42 and 53 degrees of north

latitude, and between 8 degrees east and 5 degrees of west longitude. The extent of territory, before the recent acquisitions, was computed at 148,840 square miles; and supposing the then population to be 26,000,000, would render 174 inhabitants to each square mile. At present, including all the conquered countries, which, together with Holland, have been at different times annexed to France, this empire is estimated to extend 750 miles in length, and 550 in breadth, and to comprehend a surface of upwards of 202,000 square miles, with nearly 200 inhabitants to each, making a gross population of nearly 40,000,000 of souls.

Boundaries.—It is bounded on the north by the English Channel and the North Sea; on the east by the kingdom of Italy, Switzerland, the Rhine, and the kingdom of Westphalia; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain; and on the west by the bay of Biscay.

Divisions, &c.—The Romans first illustrated the geography of Gaul, which they considered as divided into three chief regions, the Celtic, the Belgic and Aquitanic; the *Provincia Bracata* being almost entirely forgotten in the extent of their subsequent conquests. These regions were again subdivided into no less than 17 provinces. On the subversion of the Roman power new names and divisions succeeded, as Flandria, Lotharingia, Neustria, Burgundia, Vasconia, &c. while Aquitania and *Provincia* remained ancient names, though not within ancient boundaries. Under the ancient monarchy, this country was divided into 36 provinces, or governments, which were subdivided by the first National Assembly into 83 departments. These, by the frequent acquisition of territory, have been continually on the increase; so that, by the recent addition of Holland, they now amount to about 120. Their names, extent in square miles, and population, will be found in the following table, which is extracted from the accounts lately published by the French government.

FRENCH EMPIRE.

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Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
1 French Flanders	North	1758	774,450	Douay
2 Artois	Pas de Calais	2054	566,061	Arras
3 Picardy	Somme	1900	465,034	Amiens
4 Normandy	Lower Seine	1858	642,770	Rouen
	Calvados	1645	480,317	Caen
	Manche	2009	528,912	Coutances
	Orne	1859	397,931	Alençon
	Eure	1803	415,574	Evreux
5 Isle of France	Seine	132	629,763	Paris { N. lat. 48° 50'. W. long. 2° 25'
	Seine and Oise	1715	429,523	Versailles
	Oise	1774	369,086	Beauvais
	Aisne	2165	430,268	Laon
	Seine and Marne	1787	298,815	Melun
6 Champagne	Marne	2473	310,493	Chalons sur Marne
	Ardennes	1820	264,036	Sedan
	Aube	1820	240,661	Troyes
	Upper Marne	1907	225,350	Chaumont
	Meuse	1830	275,898	Bar sur Orain
7 Lorrain	Moselle	1910	353,788	Metz
	Meurthe	1875	342,007	Nancy
	Vosges	1902	308,052	Epinal
	Lower Rhine	1661	444,858	Strasbourg
8 Alsace	Upper Rhine	1758	382,285	Colmar
	Isle and Vilaine	2087	488,605	Rennes
	Lower Loire	2232	368,506	Nantes
9 Bretagne	Cotes du Nord	2207	499,927	St. Brieux
	Finisterre	2226	474,349	Quimper
	Morbihan	2061	425,485	Vannes
	Sarthe	1886	387,166	Le Mans
10 Maine and Perche	Mayenne	1590	328,597	Laval
11 Anjou	Mayenne and Loire	2227	376,033	Angers
12 Touraine	Indre and Loire	1882	278,758	Tours
13 Orleanois	Loiret	2055	289,728	Orleans
	Eure and Loire	1794	259,967	Chartres
	Loire and Cher	1959	211,152	Blois
14 Berry	Cher	2154	218,297	Bourges
15 Nivernois	Indre	2157	207,911	Chateauroux
	Nievre	2148	251,158	Nevers
16 Bourbonnois	Allier	2165	272,616	Moulins
17 Burgundy	Yonne	2257	333,278	Auxerre
	Côte d'Or	2681	347,842	Dijon
	Saone and Loire	2600	447,565	Macon
	Upper Saone	1628	287,461	Vesoul
	Doubs	1557	227,075	Besançon
18 Franche Comté	Jura	1538	289,865	Lons le Soulner
	Ain	1681	284,455	Bourg
	Vienne	2141	250,807	Poitiers
	Deux Sevres	1848	242,658	Niort
19 Poitou	Vendée	2112	270,271	Fontenay le Comte
20 Saintonge and Aunis	Lower Charente	2114	402,105	Saintes
21 Angoumois	Charente	1840	321,477	Angouleme
22 Marche	Creuse	1721	216,255	Gueret
23 Limosin	Upper Vienne	1750	259,795	Limoges
	Correze	1708	243,654	Tulles
24 Auvergne	Puy de Dome	2464	508,444	Clermont
	Cantal	1731	237,224	St. Flour

FRENCH EMPIRE.

Ancient Provinces.		Departments.	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
25	Lyonnais	Rhone	856	345,644	Lyon
		Loire	1498	292,588	Montbrison
26	Dauphiné	Isere	2494	441,203	Grenoble
		Drome	2020	211,188	Valence
27	Guyenne	Upper Alps	1648	118,322	Gap
		Gironde	3287	519,085	Bordeaux
28	Perigord	Dordogne	2766	410,350	Perigueux
		Lot and Garonne	1780	352,008	Agen
29	Quercy	Lot	2168	383,683	Cahors
30	Rovergue & Marche	Aveyron	2764	328,195	Rodes
		Landes	2763	228,889	Mont de Marson
31	Gascony	Gers	2055	291,845	Auch
		Arriege	1473	191,693	Foix
32	Bearn	Upper Pyrenees	1440	206,680	Tarbes
		Lower Pyrenees	2354	384,030	Pau
33	Roussillon	Eastern Pyrenees	1265	117,764	Perpignan
		Upper Garonne	2356	432,263	Toulouse
34	Languedoc	Tarne	1774	272,163	Alby
		Aude	1908	226,198	Carcassone
35	Cevennes	Herault	1982	291,957	Montpellier
		Gard	1832	309,052	Nismes
36	Provence	Lozere	1572	155,936	Mende
		Ardeche	1665	267,525	Privas
37	Provence	Upper Loire	1540	237,901	Le Puy
		Mouths of the Rhone	1550	320,072	Aix
38	Provence	Lower Alps	2162	140,121	Digac
		Var	2190	269,142	Toulon
39	Island of CORSICA	Golo	953	103,465	Bastia
		Liamone	862	63,547	Ajaccio
New United Departments.	Territory of Avignon and County of Venaissin	Vaucluse	1079	190,180	Avignon
		Savoy	664	48,795	Chambery
		County of Nice	1008	87,071	Nice
		City and territory of Geneva	1140	215,884	Geneva
NETHERLANDS.	Flanders	Lys	1068	470,707	Bruges
		Scheldt	1061	595,258	Ghent
		Jemmappe	1127	412,129	Mons
		Deux Nethes	771	249,376	Antwerp
Territory on the left bank of the Rhine.	Brabant	Dyle	951	363,956	Brussels
		Duchy of Guelderland	2056	232,662	Maestricht
		Liege and Duchy of Limbourg	2167	313,876	Liege
		County of Namur	1343	165,192	Namur
Territory on the left bank of the Rhine.	Duchy of Luxemburg	Sambre and Meuse	2065	225,649	Luxemburg
		Forets	2065	225,649	Luxemburg
		Archbishopric of Cologne	1953	516,246	Aix-la-Chapelle
		Roer	1953	516,246	Aix-la-Chapelle
Territory on the left bank of the Rhine.	Archbishopric of Treves	Rhine and Moselle	1415	203,290	Coblentz
		Duchy of Deux Ponts	1878	219,049	Treves
		Sarre	1878	219,049	Treves
		Archbishopric of Mentz	1779	342,316	Mentz
Territory on the left bank of the Rhine.	Duchy of Deux Ponts	Mont Tonnere	1779	342,316	Mentz
		Mont Tonnere	1779	342,316	Mentz

Ancient Names.		Departments.	Sq. Miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
PIEDMONT		Ivrea	1383	252,200	Ivrea
		Marengo	990	373,400	Alexandria
		Po	778	437,500	Turin
		Sesia	576	206,200	Vergeil
		Stura	1800	396,500	Coni
		Tanaro	864	281,000	Asti
	Republic of GENOA	Liguria	1760	600,000	Genoa
	Groningen and Friesland	Ems	1520	140,000	Leuwarden
HOLLAND.	Overysse, and part of Guelderland and Zutphen	Old Yssel	2200	450,000	Swoll
	Remainder of Guelderland and Zutphen, & part of Utrecht	Rhine	1400	260,000	Arnheim
	Part of Holland	Amstel	660	650,000	Amsterdam
	North part of Holland, to Leyden, inclusive	Texel	1200	250,000	Alkmaer
	Remainder of Holland and Utrecht	Delft	760	140,000	Utrecht
	Eastern part of Brabant	Dommel	570	150,000	Bois le Duc
	Western part of Brabant and Zeeland	Scheld and Meuse	690	200,000	Middleburg

Each department is divided into three, four, or five districts, called *communal arrondissements*. These districts are again subdivided into *cantons*, which are composed of a certain number of *communes*. A *commune* is sometimes a single town, and sometimes an union of several villages, possessing a mayor and communal municipality. All the considerable cities are divided into several communes.

With all possible brevity, we shall proceed to present our readers with a short outline of each of the departments, beginning with that of

THE NORTH.

This country is bounded on the north by the straits of Dover and the department of Lys, on the east by that of Jemmappe, on the south by that of Aisne, and on the west by that of the Straits of Calais. It is solely composed of what was till recently called French Flanders, and extends about 100 miles in length from north to south, and between 20 and 40 in breadth from east to west. It is a champaign country, uncommonly fertile in grain and pastures; and the air is wholesome. The chief towns are,

1. *Douay*, a considerable city, seated upon the river Scarpe. For a considerable time it was celebrated for its English college, to which the Roman Catholics of this country frequently sent their children to be educated. The houses of this city are tolerably well built; but the streets are narrow, except in the centre, where there is a handsome square. The chief trade of the place arises from the making and vending worsted camlets.

2. *Lille*, or *Lisle*, a large and handsome city, si-

tuated on the river Deule, 130 miles north of Paris, in a rich marshy soil, surrounded with walls, and well fortified. It is one of the richest and most commercial towns in France; and, before the revolution, was the capital of French Flanders. It is estimated to contain 170 streets, 8000 houses, and 60,000 inhabitants. The buildings are regular and handsome, and the streets broad and spacious. This place, from its beauty and the splendour of the public edifices, has been frequently called Little Paris. The public structures are the exchange, a general hospital, and three colleges. Here are several sorts of manufactures; but the principal trade is in camlets.

3. *Dunkirk*, a considerable and important maritime town, about 40 miles north-west of Lisle. The houses are in general old and irregular, and the whole have rather a mean appearance. The basin, which has been excavated within the walls of the town, is said to be of such extensive dimensions as to be capable of holding forty sail of the line afloat. It is entered by means of a sluice twelve feet wide.

4. *Cambray*, a handsome city, which, before the revolution, was the capital of the district of Cambresis. It is finely seated upon the river Scheldt, which divides it into two parts, 102 miles north-east of Paris. The houses are neat and commodious, and the streets regular and spacious. Here are considerable manufactures of lace, linen, leather, soap, and cambrics, which took their name from this city, which contains ten parishes, about 3000 houses, and 25,000 inhabitants.

5. *Valenciennes*, a very ancient city, founded by the emperor Valentinian, 17 miles north-east

of Cambray. It is situated on the river Scheldt, which divides it into two parts, and was, till lately, a very strong and important place; but the fortifications are now in a ruinous state. The principal square is handsome; but the streets are in general narrow, dark, and crooked. Besides lace, this place is noted for the manufacture of woollen stuffs, fine linens, and cambrics. The inhabitants exceed 20,000.

STRAITS OF CALAIS.

This department, which is comprised of the ancient province of Artois, is situated to the east of the last-mentioned. It extends about 80 miles in length from N.E. to S.W., and 35 in breadth. The chief towns are,

1. *Arras*, a large and ancient city, seated on the river Scarf, about 100 miles north-east of Paris. The houses are handsome, and the streets regular. The cathedral is a fine Gothic fabric; besides which there are eleven other churches. The inhabitants are estimated at 10,000.

2. *Boulogne*, a considerable sea-port, situated at the mouth of the river Lianna, 130 miles north of Paris, and only eight leagues distant from the nearest coast of England. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Towns, which are separated by the river, and is chiefly remarkable for being the general depôt from whence Bonaparte threatened to invade England. The harbour, which of late has been greatly enlarged and improved, at immense labour and expence, cannot be entered but at high water, and is defended by many forts. Here are several convents, a strong citadel, and a fine mole, which prevents the harbour from being choked up with sand.

3. *Calais*, a town situated on the narrowest part of the Channel, opposite to Dover, from whence it is distant about seven leagues. It is pretty large, uniformly built, neatly paved, and well fortified; but the harbour is of very difficult and dangerous access. It has only one parish church, which is a grand edifice; but contains a fine arsenal, a citadel, which commands the town, the harbour, and all the adjacent country, several convents, and a sluice, by which all the country about the town may be laid under water in 24 hours. In time of peace packet-boats sail twice a week between Dover and Calais.

4. *Ambleteuse*, a small town on the Channel, two leagues from Boulogne, is well fortified, and has a good harbour. Here James II. landed when he fled to France, after his abdication.

5. *Montreuil*, on the Conche, three leagues from the British Channel, contains about 5000 inhabitants, and has a pretty brisk trade. The peasants round this spot are, however, very poor. It

is remarked by travellers, that no sooner does a chaise stop, than the cottages pour forth swarms to crave charity: young and old all join in the chorus, "*Charité pour l'amour de Dieu.*"

6. *Agincourt*, or *Azincoûrt*, is famous in history for a glorious victory which the English, commanded by Henry V. gained here over the French, the 25th of October, 1415. The English lost but 1600 men, and the French 6000.

SOMME,

Situated to the S.W. of the before-mentioned, was anciently known as the province of Picardy. It is about 70 miles long, and 40 broad. The land is in general fertile, producing abundance of all kinds of grain. The chief places are,

1. *Amiens*, the capital, anciently called *Somaro-briva*, or *Briga*, that is, the bridge over the Somme. It is situated 84 miles from Paris to the north; and is a handsome, large, and populous city, of great antiquity, well fortified, and the see of a bishop. Here are three bridges over as many channels of the Somme, many churches, besides the cathedral, several convents, hospitals, and manufactories, with an academy of the arts and sciences. The ramparts make a fine walk, being planted with a double row of trees, extending quite round the city, which is entered by five gates, and contains nearly 35,000 inhabitants. Here the treaty of peace between Great Britain and the French Republic was concluded, on the 27th of March, 1802.

2. *Abbeville*, a considerable town, situated about 16 miles from the English Channel, and 21 from Amiens, on the Somme, where the tide rises to the height of six feet. Here are many churches and convents, with several courts and offices, a flourishing trade, and a great variety of manufactories. The prospect of this town, at the distance of a quarter of a mile, is remarkably beautiful.

3. *Peronne*, or *Perowne*, a considerable town seated on the Somme, the capital of a district called *Santerre*, is famous for a large linen manufactory. On account of its having been often besieged, but never taken, the French term it *la Pucelle*, or the Maiden.

4. *St. Valery*, or *Calerici*, a sea-port town, situated at the mouth of the Somme, 16 miles below Abbeville. The entrance into the Somme is very dangerous, because of the shelves and quick-sands, which move from place to place with the wind and tide, so that no ships dare venture to enter it without the assistance of the best pilots of the country. However, there is a great trade here, because all sorts of merchandise are easily conveyed from hence to Amiens, and thence to Artois, Champagne, and Paris.

5. *Cressy*,

5. *Cressy*, a small place on the river Authie, 10 miles north of Abbeville, is noted for the battle between the English and the French, A. D. 1346, in which the latter were totally defeated, with the loss of 30,000 men left dead on the field.

LOWER SEINE,

Situated to the west of the last-mentioned department, is so termed from its situation on the coast, near the mouth of the river of that name, and, with the four following departments, anciently composed the province of Normandy. It is in the form of a square, which extends 40 miles in each direction. The chief places are,

1. *Rouen*, which, though large, populous, and enriched by commerce, is not an elegant city; the streets being in general narrow, crooked, and dirty, and the buildings old and irregular. Near the Seine, at the northern extremity of the city, are yet seen the remains of the palace which Henry V. of England began in 1419; and at a small distance from it is a tower, in which John duke of Bedford confined the Maid of Orleans previous to her trial. In the market-place is a statue erected to her memory, on the spot where her cruel sentence was executed, and an inscription engraven beneath it to her honour. Here is also a little priory, called *Notre Dame de bonnes Nouvelles*, situated on the southern bank of the Seine, founded by William the Conqueror, previous to his successful attempt on the English crown. It is said, that his wife Matilda being at her devotions in this church, intelligence arrived that the duke of Normandy had gained the important battle of Hastings; and from this circumstance it obtained the name which it retains at present. Matilda, daughter of Henry I. and mother of Henry II. kings of England, was buried here; but 600 years have totally erased the inscription on her tomb, of which there are now no traces discernible. The cathedral here is one of the most magnificent monuments of Gothic architecture in France. It was built under William the Conqueror's reign, and entirely completed in 1063, and has been the mausoleum of several illustrious personages: among others, here lies Rollo the Dane, founder of the Norman line, destined to ascend the English throne; a hero whose valorous deeds are almost lost in the barbarism of the times in which he flourished. Two of his descendants, dukes of Normandy, are buried near him. The heart of Richard I. of England, which, when dying, he ordered to be deposited here, is placed on the right hand of the high altar. It was originally preserved in a shrine of massy silver; but, during the extreme distress occasioned by the want of money to defray the expences of St. Louis's ran-

som, when taken prisoner at Damietta in Egypt, this splendid repository was applied to the necessities of the state. Prince Henry, the elder brother of Richard, who died at the castle of Martel, in Quercy, in 1183, lies buried on the opposite side. Near these repose all that is mortal of John duke of Bedford; an illustrious name, revered even by his enemies. Behind the altar, under a monument of exquisite workmanship, is interred the great Cardinal Amboise, minister to Louis XII., whose memory France will honour as long as patriotism and integrity are cherished among men. He is represented on the tomb kneeling, and in prayer. The monument of Louis de Brezé, Count de Maulevrier, who died in 1531, is one of the most masterly and beautiful productions of the chissel. The figure of the count himself is extended at full length, and is beautifully executed. On one side is the Virgin Mary, and on the other appears his widow, the celebrated Diana de Poitiers, afterwards the favourite mistress of Henry II. She looks down on the body of her husband, in the attitude and dress of a mourner. Besides the cathedral, here are thirty-six parish-churches, and several fine public buildings. This city, including its suburbs, is upwards of seven miles in circumference, and is computed to contain 7000 houses, and 73,600 souls. It is seated on the Seine, 70 miles N.W. of Paris, over which there is a bridge of boats, 270 paces long, which rises and falls with the tide, and is made to open, so as to admit the passage of ships.

2. *Dieppe*, a sea-port town, situated on an even ground between two mountains, at the mouth of the river Betune, which falling here into the sea, forms the harbour. It is fortified with bulwarks to the sea, with a fortress at the suburb called Pollet, and a castle, which, together with the craggy mountains that lie on the south, render it a place of strength; and as such, it was chosen by king James IV. for his headquarters, when he was opposed by the League at his accession to the crown. The town is well built, and is chiefly inhabited by sea-faring people. The haven is narrow, but very long, and can receive ships of great burden; but, by reason of its narrowness, is difficult of access. This town has been often taken and re-taken in the wars between the English and French. In the year 1694 it was almost totally destroyed by bombs that were shot into it from the English fleet, commanded by the lord Berkeley; but they have repaired it since. The chief trade here is chiefly derived from extensive fisheries of herrings, whittings, mackerel, and oysters; together with manufactures of ivory goods, laces, and tobacco rolls.

3. *Havre*,

3. *Havre-de-Grace*, a strong sea-port town, situated at the mouth of the Seine, 45 miles west of Rouen. It is well built, strongly fortified, has an excellent harbour, a good trade, and is the key of this part of the country. Here is a basin reserved for ships of war, with room and depth of water for thirty sail of the line.

CALVADOS,

Situated to the south-west of the Lower Seine, is so called from a high ridge of rocks of the same name, upon the coast of the Channel. It extends from the mouth of the Seine easterly, to the Vire westerly, about 50 miles, and 30 from north to south. The chief towns are,

1. *Caen*, an ancient city, situated at the conflux of the rivers Orne and Oden, the former of which runs through the city, and brings up vessels of large burden up to the quay, and makes it a place of good trade. William the Conqueror was interred in the abbey of St. Stephen, in this city, which he had founded. Here is a college founded by Charles VII.

2. *Bayeux*, a considerable town, situated on the river Aune, about four miles from the English Channel, and thirteen W.N.W. from Caen. The houses are mostly well built, and the streets spacious and regular. The inhabitants, about 8000 in number, carry on a great trade, particularly in leather.

3. *Falaise*, a small town on the Ante, famous for being the birth-place of William the Conqueror. In this town and the adjacent villages are manufactories of linen, laces, and woollen stuffs. Here is held a great annual fair.

4. *Honfleur*, situated at the mouth of the Seine, where they make a great quantity of lace. The harbour is well defended, and will admit ships of three or four hundred tons up to the quays.

MANCHE, OR CHANNEL,

Seated westward of the last-mentioned department, is so termed from its peninsular situation on the coast of the English Channel. It extends nearly 100 miles in length from north to south, but not more than 30 miles at its greatest breadth. In fertility and produce, this department is inferior to no part of the north of Europe. It abounds with fine acclivities clothed with wood, and rich valleys waving with corn. It contains several towns and places, of which the following are most worthy the notice of the traveller:

1. *Coutances*, the capital, an ancient town, in which are some Roman remains, aqueducts, &c. The houses bear all the marks of antiquity in their structure and taste, which is rude to a de-

gree. On the summit of the hill, in the centre of the town, stands the cathedral, which has a grotesque appearance spread over the whole fabric; but the fastastic ornaments of Gothic building are mingled with a wondrous delicacy and elegance in many of its parts. The population of this town is estimated at upwards of 5000.

2. *Cherbourg*, a maritime town, the key of Lower Normandy, pretends to very high antiquity, and is said to have been originally called Cæsarbourg. The inhabitants, about 6000 in number, carry on a great trade in the building of small vessels; and the harbour will admit vessels of nine hundred tons up to the town. Richard II. duke of Normandy, uncle to William the Conqueror, built a strong castle here; and coins of several Roman emperors have been dug up at different times; one, in fine preservation, of Antoninus Pius, was found only a few years since.

3. *Granville*, situated very pleasantly on a neck of land stretching into the sea. It is not small; but the buildings are scattered, mean, and irregular, extending near a mile from one extremity to the other, part on the rock above, and part on the vale below, contiguous to which are quarries of stone of a very large size and great durability. The town is open to the sea; and near it is a noted oyster fishery.

4. *Harfleur*, eight leagues from Havre-de-Grace, is defended by a castle, and has manufactures of tanned leather, hats, laces, serges, linen, and woollen cloths, &c. It is seated at the mouth of a small river, which falls into the Seine; but the harbour is choked up with sand.

5. *Carentan*, 18 miles north-east of Coutances, and nine from the sea, is situated on a rivulet, by which small vessels can come up to the quay at high water. The town is small; but the ruins of the castle are beautiful. It was celebrated in the civil wars under Charles IX. and in those of the League which followed in the reigns of Henry III. and IV. The architecture of the great church is elegant, it having been erected in the 15th century, when the Gothic structures had almost attained their highest point of beauty and perfection.

6. *Mont St. Michael*, a small town, with an abbey and castle, built on a rock, in the midst of a sandy shore, which, twice in twenty-four hours, is overflowed by the sea. The following entertaining description of it is given by Mr. Wraxall:

"This extraordinary rock (for it is no more) rises in the middle of the bay of Avranches. Nature has completely fortified one side by its craggy and almost perpendicular descent, which renders

renders it impracticable for courage or address, however consummate, to scale or mount it. The other parts are surrounded by walls, fenced with semilunar towers in the Gothic manner, but sufficiently strong, superadded to the advantages of its situation, to despise all attacks. At the foot of the mountain begins a street or town, which winds round its base to a considerable height. Above are chambers where prisoners of state were kept, with other buildings intended for residence; and on the summit is erected the abbey itself, occupying a prodigious space of ground, of a strength and solidity equal to its enormous size, since it has stood all storms, in this elevated and exposed situation, during many centuries. I spent the whole afternoon in the different parts of this edifice; and as the Swiss, who conducted me through them, found he could not gratify my curiosity too minutely, he left no apartment or chamber unseen.

"The *Sale de Chevalerie*, or Knight's Hall, reminded me of that at Marienburg, in Polish Prussia. It is equally spacious, but more barbarous and rude, because some hundred years prior in its erection. Here the knights of St. Michael used to meet in solemn convocation on important occasions. They were the defenders and guardians of the mountain and abbey, as those of the Temple and of St. John of Jerusalem were to the holy sepulchre. Here is a painting of the archangel, the patron of their order; and in this hall Louis XI. first instituted, and invested with the insignia of knighthood, the chevaliers of the cross of St. Michael.

"We passed on through several lesser rooms into a long passage, on one side of which the Swiss opened a door, and, through a narrow entrance, perfectly dark, he led me, by a second door, into an apartment, or dungeon (for it rather merited the latter than the former appellation), in the middle of which stood a cage. It was composed of prodigious wooden bars; and the wicket, which admitted into it, was ten or twelve inches thick. I went into the inside. The space it comprised was about twelve or fourteen feet square, and it might be nearly twenty in height. This was the abode of many eminent victims in former ages, whose names and miseries are now obliterated and forgotten.

"There was, said my conductor, towards the latter end of the last century, a certain news-writer in Holland, who had presumed to print some very severe and sarcastic reflections on Madame de Maintenon and Louis XIV. Some months after, he was induced, by a person sent expressly for that purpose, to make a tour into French Flanders. The instant he had quitted the Dutch territories, he was put under arrest,

and immediately, by his majesty's express command, conducted to this place. They shut him up in this cage. Here he lived upwards of 23 years; and here he at length expired. During the long nights of winter, continued the man, no candle or fire was allowed him. He was not permitted to have any book. He saw no human face, except the jailor, who came once every day, to present him, through a hole in the wicket, his little portion of bread and wine. No instrument was given him with which he could destroy himself; but he found means, at length, to draw out a nail from the wood, with which he cut, or engraved, on the bars of his cage, certain *fleur-de-lis*, and armorial bearings, which formed his only employment and recreation. These I saw, and they are, indeed, very curiously performed with so rude a tool.

"It is now fifteen years, said the Swiss, since a gentleman terminated his days in that cage. It was before I came to reside here. But there is one instance within my own memory. Monsieur de F——, a person of rank, was conducted here, by command of the king. He remained three years shut up in it. I fed him myself every day; but he was allowed books and candle to alleviate his misery; and at length the abbot, touched with his deplorable calamities, requested and obtained the royal pardon. He was set free accordingly.

"The subterranean chambers, added he, in this mountain are so numerous that we know them not ourselves. There are certain dungeons, called *Oubliettes*, into which they were accustomed anciently to let down malefactors guilty of very heinous crimes. They provided them with a loaf of bread and a bottle of wine, and then they were totally forgotten, and left to perish by hunger, in the dark vaults of the rock. This punishment has not, however, been inflicted by any king in the last or present century.

"We continued our progress through the abbey. He led me into a chamber, in one corner of which was a kind of window. Between this and the wall of the building was a very deep space, or hollow, of near 100 feet perpendicular; and at the bottom was another window opening to the sea. It is called the hole of Montgomeri. The history of it is this:—In the year 1559, Henry II. king of France, was unfortunately killed at a tournament by the Count de Mongomeri. It was not intended on that nobleman's part; and he was forced, contrary to his inclination, to push the lance against his sovereign, by his express command. He was a Hugonot; and having escaped the dreadful massacre of Paris, made head against the royal forces in Normandy; supported

supported by our Elizabeth with arms and money. Being driven from his fortresses in those parts, he retired to a rock, called the Tombelaine. This is another, similar to the Mont St. Michael, only three-quarters of a league distant from it, and of nearly equal dimensions. At that time there was a castle on it, afterwards demolished, and of which scarce any vestiges now remain. From this fastness, only accessible at low tides, he continually made excursions, and annoyed the enemy, who never dared to attack him. He coined money, laid all the adjacent country under contribution, and rendered himself universally dreaded. Desirous, however, to surprise the Mont St. Michael, he found means to engage one of the monks resident in the abbey, who promised to give him the signal for his enterprise by displaying a handkerchief. The treacherous monk having made the signal, betrayed him, and armed all his associates, who waited Montgomeri's arrival. The chieftain came, attended by fifty chosen soldiers, desperate, and capable of any attempt. They crossed the sand, and having placed their scaling-ladders, mounted one by one; as they came to the top, they were dispatched, each in turn, without noise. Montgomeri, who followed last, at length discovered the perfidy, and escaped with only two of his men, with whom he regained the Tombelaine. They preserve, with great care, the ladders and grappling-irons used on this occasion. The count himself was at last besieged and taken prisoner by the Mareschal de Matignon, in 1574, at Domfront, in Normandy; and Catharine de Medicis, who detested him for his having been, though innocently, the cause of her husband's death, ordered him to be immediately executed.

"The church itself detained me a long time, and is a matter of high curiosity. It rests on nine pilliars of most enormous dimensions, which stand upon the solid rock. I did not measure them; but, as far as the gloominess of the place would admit, I apprehend that each of them must be 25 feet in circumference. Besides these there are two others, of much inferior size, which support the centre of the church, over which is the tower. If the prodigious incumbent weight be considered, and the nature of its situation, nothing less massy could sustain the edifice. They seem as if designed to outlive the ravages of time, and the convulsions of nature. The building was begun in 966, when Richard, the second duke of Normandy, began to erect the abbey. It was completed about the year 1070, under William the Conqueror; though many other additions were made by succeeding abbots.

"The treasury is crowded by relics innumerable, among which some few have a real and intrinsic value. There is a fine head of Charles VI. of France, cut in crystal, which drew my attention. They have got (I know not by what means) an arm of Edward the Confessor; and they shewed me another of St. Richard, king of England. Who this saint and prince was, I confess, is beyond my comprehension. I am sure they could not term Richard I. so, unless his cruelty against Saladin wiped out all his sins, and canonized him. Richard II. has no better pretensions to sanctity. I do not mention him who fell at Bosworth; so that who this royal saint was I must leave you to divine. As to the monks, they know nothing about it; but they were positive he was a king of England. An enormous golden cockle-shell, weighing many pounds, given to Richard, the second duke of Normandy, when he founded the abbey, is worthy remark.

"The refectory, cloisters, and cells of the monks, have been magnificent and spacious; but a vast sum of money is wanted to put the whole in repair, and reinstate what the lapse of ages has defaced and deformed.

"In the year 1090, Robert, duke of Normandy, and William Rufus, king of England, sons of William the Conqueror, besieged their younger brother Henry a long time in the Mont St. Michael. It must be presumed that they were masters of the foot of the rock; for otherwise it would be impracticable to invest it. The prince could never have been reduced to surrender from force; but he was in want of water, and from that necessity was on the point of yielding up the fortress, when Robert, with the benevolence and generosity which marked his character, sent him some pipes of wine; and this succour enabled Henry to hold out. Rufus reproached Robert for his conduct. 'Shall we then,' said he, 'suffer our brother to die of thirst?' But this was the return he met with from Henry—an imprisonment of *twenty-eight years* in a vaulted chamber of Cardiff castle, where he expired."

ORNE,

To the south-east of the last-mentioned, is so termed from the river of the same name which rises in this department. It extends about 80 miles from east to west, and from 30 to 50 from north to south. The chief places are,

1. *Alençon*, a place of considerable size, washed by the river Sarte, and standing in the midst of an extensive plain. It has manufactories of velvets and linen cloths.

2. *Argentan*, a considerable town, situated on the

the banks of the Orne, on an eminence in the midst of a fertile plain, in which are manufactories of fine linen and stuffs.

3. *Mortaigne*, a neat little town on the river Lances, is famous for its tanneries. Stephen, king of England, was first Earl of Mortaigne, and afterwards of Boulogne by marriage.

EURE.

This department is situated to the east of Calvados and Orne; and extends about 60 miles from north to south, and from 30 to 60 in breadth. It is exceedingly fertile, producing abundance of grain and pastures. Its name is derived from the river Eure, which passes through it. The chief places are.

1. *Evreux*, the capital, a neat town seated on the river Iton, 55 miles north of Paris. It has a considerable trade in cotton, velvet, ticks, linens, woollens, serges, cyder, and corn.

2. *Anderly*, or *Anderlis*, a considerable town at the south-western corner of the department, situated upon the Seine. It is divided into two parts, called the Great and Little Towns, which are united by a finely paved road. The cloth manufactured here is reckoned the finest in France.

SEINE,

This department, which is the smallest in the empire, is entirely surrounded by that of the Seine and Oise. It extends about 20 miles in length, and 15 in breadth where broadest. In shape it somewhat resembles an heart; the climate is very salubrious, the soil fertile, and the animal and vegetable produce excellent and abundant. The chief places are,

1. *Paris*, the metropolis of the empire, situated on the river Seine, one of the largest, finest, and most populous cities in Europe. It derives its name from the ancient *Parisii*, and had formerly, as it is imagined, the Latin name of *Lutetia*, from the word *lutum*, "mud," as it was originally founded on a marshy soil. This city has been the residence of the French monarchs for upwards of 800 years; that is, ever since the reign of Hugh Capet. It is of a circular form; and, including the suburbs, extends about six French leagues, or 18 English miles in compass, and six in diameter. The number of its streets is said to be 912; that of its houses upwards of 20,000, exclusive of public edifices of all sorts; and that of the inhabitants about 600,000, it having been recently ascertained, by an accurate enumeration, that all former calculations on the population of this city have greatly exceeded the number of the existing inhabitants. It is divided into three

parts: the city, the university, and that which was formerly called the town. The city may not improperly be termed Old Paris; while the university and town are comparatively new. Paris contains more works of public magnificence than utility; yet, notwithstanding its boasted splendour, it is greatly inferior to London in the conveniences of life, and the solid enjoyments of society, though it is the unrivalled seat of fashion and dissipation. The hotels of the principal people take up much room with their courtyards and gardens; and so do the convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, and the houses high, many of them seven stories. The houses are built chiefly of stone, and often, like those of Edinburgh, contain a different family on every floor.

The length, and narrowness of the streets, with the great height of the houses, massy gates, and little folding windows, dark with dirt, produce rather an unpleasing effect. Instead of a gay, they form a gloomy vista. The grand hotels have spacious court-yards, on one side of which is a small, and, generally, dirty dwelling-place, for the person who attends the gate. He is mostly of some sedentary profession, and is the guardian of the premises. The words *parlez au portier* are written over his lodge.

"In contrasting the different parts of Paris," says Mr. Holcroft, "the effects are great. If, coming from London, you enter by the fauxbourg St. Dennis, the appearance is pleasing; yet this fauxbourg does not exceed those of St. Marcel and St. Antoine; in all of them meanness, filth, and poverty predominate. If, on the contrary, you enter this metropolis coming from Versailles, or St. German en laye, you are astonished at this view of its magnificence.

"The objects of which it is formed are individually, perhaps, liable to censure, yet they form a very extraordinary whole. It is one scene of a vast expanse of foliage, formed by the innumerable and majestic trees of the Elysian fields, and the gardens of the Thuilleries, intermingled with palaces, the bridges, and the waters of the Seine, and completed by the city itself in perspective, and the lofty towers, spires, and domes, by which it is overlooked. The man that should desire to enjoy a fine dream, a beatific vision of Paris, should come to this height, and look before him for half an hour, then descend through the garden of the Thuilleries, and, having seen the *facade* of the palace, return without proceeding one step farther. It would be food for imagination, remembrance, and regret, through life. He would everlastingly proclaim Paris the most astonishing of cities, the most splendid

splendid of the works of man, and, undoubtedly, the metropolis of the world."

The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half so large as the Thames at London; it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and is not furnished, as the Thames, with vessels or boats of any sort. Over it are nine principal bridges, some of which are of wood, and others of stone: most of them have a row of houses on each side. The principal of these are Pont-Neuf and Pont-Royal.

The Pont-Neuf, which is the finest and most frequented, is 1020 feet long, consists of twelve arches, and has a carriage-way in the middle 30 feet broad, and foot-walks on each side raised two feet high. In the centre stands a brass statue of Henry IV. on horseback. A building called La Samaritaine, is likewise erected on this bridge. It is so named from a group of figures upon it, representing our Saviour and the Samaritan woman standing near Jacob's well. Here is a pump to raise the water, which, by means of pipes, supplies the quarter of the Louvre, and some other parts of the town.

Pont-Royal, or the Royal Bridge, crossing the Seine to the Thuilleries, was built of stone, by order of Louis XIV. in the room of a wooden bridge that was carried away by the violence of the current in 1684. The foundations were laid in 1685, and it was finished in a little time, at a moderate expence, though it is one of the strongest in the kingdom. A Dominican friar, named Romain, had the direction of it.

The streets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives them the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more show than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of strangers, are mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and, in fact, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of strangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendancy is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of the language, the public buildings, the libraries, and collections of paintings that are open to the public, the cheapness of provisions, the excellency of the French wines, and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London, in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanliness of the streets, and neatness of the houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which, it is said, disagrees with strangers, as do likewise their small wines. In the houses of Paris most of the

floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a day. These brick floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of stone, are, however good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds, in general are very good, and well ornamented. Their shops are but poorly stored with goods; and the shopkeepers and the tradesmen are an indolent loitering people. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of persons and those of the same rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery of the shop, while the husbands loiter about, talk of the news, the great, of fashions and diversions, of the improvements of the city, and the invincible force of their armies. They, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their manner of living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is considered infamous. Bread, and all manner of butcher's meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the wine they generally drink is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and small wine. Till lately they scarcely knew the use of tea; but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is so excellent, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happen; and strangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, meet with the most polite treatment. The streets are patrolled at night by horse and foot, so judiciously stationed, that no offender can escape their vigilance. They likewise visit the publicans precisely at midnight, to see that the company are gone; for no liquor can be had after that time.

Since the ever memorable revolution in this country, the most strenuous efforts have been made to improve this city, in which astonishing improvements have been projected, and in a great measure carried into execution. Sewers have been constructed, after the model of those in London, for carrying off the dirty and stagnant water, which, till very recently, rendered the streets almost impassable in rainy weather. The sides of the principal streets are now paved in the modern style; and lamps, similar to those in London, are to be met with in all the great thoroughfares. Several obstructions and nuisances have been removed, and the whole now begins to have a much more cleanly and respectable appearance. Indeed, it seems to be the policy of the present ruler of France to en-

gage the attention of the inhabitants of his capital, and the people in general, to works of public utility and national benefit, in order, if possible, to withdraw their observation from political topics.

The Boulevards form the principal promenade of the Parisians. They are divided into two parts, called the North and South. That of the north is the delight of the people of this city, the scene of their pastimes, and the place to which they flock in multitudes. Like the Mall in St. James's park, it is planted with double rows of trees; yet the Mall and the Boulevards have scarcely the least resemblance: the latter is not only a public walk, but a public street, over the broad pavement of which the carriages are continually rolling. The trees, spacious walks, and the gardens that occasionally decorate each side, intermingled as they are with stalls, booths, shops, coffee-houses, and hotels, many of them among the most magnificent in Paris, give it an air that neither resembles town nor country.

Mr. Holcroft, who visited Paris during the peace of Amiens, in 1802, says, "I have no conception of any other place so contradictory to itself, as well in appearance as in mind and manners, as Paris. In the face of the hotels, at the stalls, sheds, and shops, the most trifling wares are sold. Here the Savoyard strings his pack-thread; against the wall, and hangs up vile prints, slips of printed paper, with Grub-street wit, for the *badauds*, or cockneys of Paris, plans of the city, and whatever refuse of the shops he is able to collect: he is considered a respectable trader. Beside him sits a woman or man, it may be either, who patches up and sells coarse night-caps, linen drawers, and foots and mends stockings. His next neighbour is a conjuror, a distributor of lucky numbers; he demands only two *sous*, and the first letter of your name; and though he be himself a wretch who never made a good meal, or put on a new coat in his life, he will tell you immediately how to get rich. "Stalls of dirty books, tressels with toys, sellers of cakes and canes, fan-menders, bead-stringers, beggars, quacks, tumblers, and show-booths; fellows displaying tricks of legerdemain; venders of miraculous dyes and powders, who dip bits of white ribband in a liquor that turns them pink; orators parroting over two-penny systems of geology, and the order of the universe; teachers of secrets that will enable the buyer to cut glass under water, sketch landscapes upon egg-shells, engrave portraits by pricking paper with pins and dusting it with lamp-black. These intermingled with the display of milliners, linen drapers, print-sellers, and a variety of trades, continue through an avenue two miles in length; spacious, enlivened as I

have said with carriages, and adorned by lofty trees, gardens, and hotels, with the gates, or rather the triumphal arches, of St. Dennis and St. Martin. The structure that was the opera-house there, and thousands of other objects, which no memory can retain, if the reader can arrange and put them together, will form a something that he may imagine to be the Boulevards of Paris."

Among the numerous public edifices of this city is the cathedral church, styled Notre Dame, because it is dedicated to the Holy Virgin. It is an ancient Gothic building, in the form of a cross, and having been completed at several times, it appears more strong than noble. From the two square towers belonging to it is a noble prospect of the city; and in the choir are many fine paintings, rich tapestry, and a vast quantity of gold and silver plate.

In the church of St. Genevieve there is a library, with a curious collection of coins, medals, antiquities, and other rarities. Amongst others, there is the skeleton of a man dried in the sands of Africa, with all the muscles complete and exactly preserved. Besides the above, there are 51 other churches, 50 convents for men, 53 convents for women, 12 seminaries, and 16 hospitals, six of which are for deserted children.

The late Palais Royal, was called at first le Palais Cardinal, because cardinal de Richlieu built it, in the year 1636. As soon as it was finished, he made a present of it to king Louis XIII. and his successors, being kings of France. It consists of several sets of buildings separated by large courts, and is adorned with fine gardens. Several new apartments have been added to it since the cardinal's time. The whole French court lodged in it during the regency of queen Anne of Austria, mother to Louis XIV. whence it had the name of the Royal Palace.

The palace where the parliament of Paris met under the monarchical government, was anciently the residence of the kings; but it was given to the parliament of Paris, in 1302, by Philip the Fair. In the great hall belonging to this palace the reigning princes usually gave audience to foreign ambassadors. It is now chiefly used as public offices for the service of the state.

The Hotel Dieu is the most capacious as well as the most ancient hospital in Paris, where eight thousand sick and infirm people are taken care of, and properly attended, by the nuns of the order of St. Augustine.

The General Hospital is another noble foundation, for the poor of the female sex, situate in that part called the University. Here 7000 objects are taken care of and provided for. The sick are carefully attended, while those that are in health are obliged to work.

The late Royal, but now National Observatory, is a building composed of stones exactly square, and uncommonly massy. By the flatness of the roof, which is arched with bricks, the wet has penetrated, and, by washing the mortar from the crevices, has hurt the whole structure. From the northern window there is a delightful prospect of the city of Paris. Through the centre of the whole building there is a circular well, which is continued as far under the ground as the building itself is raised above it; and at this depth, which you descend by a winding staircase of stone, of 170 steps, there are subterraneous passages, or narrow alleys, with stone walls on each side, which seem more extensive than the building itself, and branch out into many directions. They conduct you to a cave or grotto, from the roof of which the water, having penetrated all the way from the top of the observatory, distils constantly to the floor, and there forms a petrified crust.

The palace of the Louvre, which is deemed one of the chief ornaments of Paris, was first built under the reign of Philip Augustus, in 1214. What is called the Old Louvre consists of two sets of buildings that form an interior angle, the fronts of which are adorned with very fine pieces of architecture. The whole building is three stories high. The outward courts are adorned with chamfered columns, and the other with pilasters of the same order with those columns. What is chiefly admired is the proportion of the windows of the second story, the cases of which are adorned with a pediment, alternately triangular and circular. The third story has also its particular ornaments, consisting of trophies of arms, in basso-relievo, fixed to the window-cases, with other ornaments in the entablatures. In the hall of the hundred Switzers is a kind of gallery, supported by four gigantic figures. This hall was formerly used for great entertainments; and Queen Catharine de Medicis caused plays and interludes to be acted here, for the diversion of the court. On one of the gates of the Louvre is engraved the following inscription:—" *Dum totum impleat Orbem;*" implying,

" May this fam'd fabric stand until the day
That o'er the world its owner gains the sway:"

Which sufficiently hints what the ambition of the French kings constantly aimed at, and what the present ruler of France is so likely, in a great measure, to effect—an universal monarchy. Another inscription shews at once the vanity of the nation, and their abject flattery towards Louis XIV. which in English may be rendered thus:

" Louvre is a palace for great Louis fit,
God him alone exceeds, as Heav'n does it."

Louis XIII. finished the west front, and built a large pavilion, in the form of a dome, in the middle, over the gate, which is supported by two rows of very large pillars of the Ionic order, and also adorned the architrave of the front to the court with fine sculptures. Louis XIV. bestowed great cost upon the east front, in the middle of which is the east gate of the palace: here are 40 columns of the Corinthian order, which support a large terrace, that is railed with a stately balustrade. The court, which is the middle of that large building, is nearly twenty-three perches square; the four sides of it are composed of eight pavilions, and eight sets of buildings, which surround that great court: there are yet but about three parts of it built. The architecture, after the manner it is begun, is to consist of three orders of columns, with their pedestals; the first of the Corinthian, and the two others of the Composite order.

The palace of the Thuilleries is joined to that of the Louvre by a long gallery, built by Henry IV. and esteemed the finest in Europe. It contains 180 models of fortresses, that are executed with great accuracy. The palace was begun in 1564 by Catharine de Medicis, and finished by Louis XIV. It stands in a place where formerly they made tiles, called *tuiles* in French, from whence it is named. It is one range of building, with a pavilion at each end, and a dome in the middle. Before it is a handsome large space, divided into three courts; the whole adorned with columns, pilasters, and other ornaments. Behind are beautiful gardens, adorned with fine walks, planted with evergreens, and other trees, and fine parterres, where are to be seen, the year round, all the flowers that are in season. It has also three fine fountains, with their basins, and a large octagonal canal. Towards the river is a fine terrace, planted with three rows of trees. From this terrace is a most beautiful prospect over part of the city, and the adjacent country. The riding house belonging to this palace, was the place chosen by the National Assembly for their sittings, when they removed from Versailles in 1789. In the palace is a spacious and magnificent theatre; and hard by it are the Elysian fields, where a surprising number of coaches are to be seen in fine weather.

The palace of Orleans, commonly called the Palace of Luxemburg, was built by Queen Mary de Medicis, on the ruins of the old hotel, or house of Luxemburg, which name it kept. It was finished in five or six years' time, under the direction of James de Brosse, and is one of the most perfect and regular pieces of architecture in France. In this palace is a gallery of paintings, done by the famous Rubens, who spent two whole

whole years on that work. The whole history of Mary de Medicis' life is here represented allegorically, in twenty-four large pictures, nine feet broad, and ten feet high, placed in the piers between the windows.

The Hotel de Ville, or Guildhall of the city, is a large but whimsical building, as the main part is of Gothic architecture, and the columns are of the Corinthian order. It is situated in the Place La Greve, an open spot, appropriated at once to joy and tribulation; for malefactors are sometimes executed here, and at other times public rejoicings are celebrated in this place.

The Grand Arsenal contains many spacious buildings, particularly a foundry and salt-petre house. Here is likewise a musketoon of two barrels, the balls of which will pierce a thick board at the distance of six miles; and for discerning an object at that distance, there is a telescope fixed to the barrel. The Temple is a commandery of the Knights of Malta; its precinct is a privileged place for debtors; and the temple itself is the residence of the grand prior of France.

The Hall of the Council of Five Hundred is well worthy of notice. We shall extract an account of it from the celebrated Kotzebue. "Such," says he, "must have been the appearance of the place where the senate of ancient Rome used to meet; and if not such, it was certainly far inferior to the hall of Five Hundred, which is splendid without luxury and gaudy glitter. In a vast semicircle, 500 seats rise into the form of an amphitheatre; behind there is a gallery for the constituted authorities; and, above that, a second for the people. The ceiling, which joins the latter, is decorated with the pictures of ancient legislators and celebrated republicans. Here are Solon, Lycurgus, Regulus, Cato, and many others, with the period in which they lived marked underneath. In the midst of all these figures, Nature sits enthroned with the inscription: "Nature alone gives eternal laws." The hall receives light from above, and warmth from below; for it has neither windows nor stoves. Opposite the seats of the Five Hundred is a handsome tribune for the president; and, a little farther, a second for the secretaries. The walls are hung with drapery, not tri-coloured, but of light green cloth, with flame-coloured ornaments. Every thing is simply dignified; and I think it impossible to fit up any place in the world in a manner more appropriate to its use."

"The Hotel of the Invalids," continues Kotzebue, "is second to none in magnificence. But the beholder feels a singular, I had almost said a pleasing melancholy, if he pass through the great garden extended in front of the hotel, and view

the beautiful prospect which the Seine affords; if at every step the eye meet a mutilated veteran, who, however, looks cheerful and well-fed, breathing the fresh air, comfortably seated on a bench, or leisurely walking about the garden. I happened to be here just at twelve o'clock in the day, when the drum beat to dinner; old and young, creeping and halting, assembled in large halls, sat down at small round tables, and, with a hearty appetite, helped themselves to abundance of good substantial food. Each of them has a glass jug full of wine with his meat, to cheer him. But, after satisfying the cravings of their appetite, what are those brave men, wounded in the service of their country, to do, in order to chase away irksomeness? That, too, is guarded against. They have an excellent library; and many a German prince cannot boast of having one so valuable in his residence. A large hall is lined on all sides with neat book-cases, well stocked with literary productions. To enjoy this nourishment of the mind, chairs and tables are conveniently placed. In the back-ground hangs David's picture of Buonaparte crossing the Alps, while a gust of wind blows his cloak over his head. It is the same which Buonaparte made a present of to the Invalids, and which the hoary warriors were obliged to salute with discharges of artillery on its arrival. A *large cloak*, spread like a sail, almost wholly enwraps the *little man*. It bears not the least resemblance to him. Flat-tery, however, takes care that it be multiplied. A number of invalids were sitting round about reading; one a military work, another a tragedy by Racine, and a third a novel.

"A sublime spectacle is afforded by the great cupola, from whose dome the colours of all nations are triumphantly displayed. What have been taken in Egypt, in horse-tails, crescents, &c. are placed in picturesque groups on the columns. There may be several thousand stand of colours."

The public places, squares, &c. in this city are very numerous, and several of them elegant. Among the chief is the Place des Victoires, or Victory Place, a kind of circus, which, before the revolution, contained a noble statue of Louis XIV. erected to his honour by the Duke de Feuilleade. The figure was of massy brass, ten feet high, clad in his robes, with a Victory behind him, of the same bulk and metal, putting a crown on his head; and poised with her foot on a globe. Under her feet was a three-headed Cerberus, to represent Louis XIV. triumphing over the triple alliance, and this inscription under it—*Viro immortali*, "To the immortal man." The whole mould was cast at once, and weighed above 30,000 pounds. The pedestal was 22 feet high, which, with

with the massy piece of mould the statue stood upon, made the whole near 40 feet high. On the pedestal were basso-relievos of the king's battles and conquests. Under the pedestal was a pavement of marble, inclosed within stately iron gates. There were several inscriptions upon the pedestal, alluding to the king's great actions; but this fine statue, with several others, were destroyed at the beginning of the revolution by the enemies of royalty.

The Place Dauphin is of a triangular shape, and has a very pretty appearance: it was built by Henry IV. in honour of his son the dauphin, afterwards Louis XIII. Besides which here are the Place Vendome, a fine square, with the angles truncated; and the Place de Louis XV.; or, as it now called, the Place de la Revolution, which was the fatal scene of the execution of Louis XVI. and his unhappy consort.

There are three triumphal arches in Paris, erected to Louis XIV., and known by the names of Portes St. Bernard, St. Dennis, and St. Martin.

"The Botanical Garden," says Kotzebue, "is very large and beautiful. The hot-houses are small and neat structures, but contain nothing particular.

"The foreign animals are pretty numerous, yet there are not many rare ones among them that have not been seen elsewhere. A couple of elephants, playing all sorts of tricks, the conquered bears of Bern, lions, tygers, leopards, wolves, eagles, an ostrich, a couple of kangaroos, an ichneumon, different breeds of sheep, goats, and deer, constitute nearly the whole. But it is a very good regulation, that all those animals from whose ferocity nothing is to be dreaded can range about in the open air, and are only separated from one another by low hedge-rows, over which a man of a middling stature may easily look.

"But that which renders the botanical garden at Paris most interesting, and attracts the people to visit it, is solely the gallery of natural history. Unrivalled in its kind by any in the known world, it is contained in a fine building, with many spacious halls, close to the garden. The whole is arranged in glass presses in the most instructive manner. In the first floor are to be found the productions of the mineral and vegetable kingdoms; also many petrifications; among others, a large collection of petrified fishes, one of which must have been encompassed by the still fluid stony mass at the very moment when it was swallowing another little fish; for one half of its prey remains hanging out of its mouth; in which state it suddenly became petrified with its devourer. One of the most remarkable articles is

a very perfect petrified jaw of a crocodile. In the second floor are the various species of the animal kingdom, where you see, under glass covers, beetles, butterflies, and all sorts of insects; then follow snakes, lizards, tortoises; next to these, birds of every species, with infinite variety of beautiful plumage, and many of them with their nests and eggs. A large hall contains the quadrupeds. In its centre is the zebra, with variegated stripes, the rhinoceros, the elephant, and finally the tall camelopard, near which stands the elephant like a dwarf. On the side walls are to be found not only the well-known animals which are found in other places, but likewise the hippopotamus, the sea-cow, the antelope, the sloth, the ant-eater; in short, all the animals that are seen depicted in Buffon."

Of the public spectacles of Paris the *Comedie Françoise* is the chief. This theatre is spacious, and, when filled, has a splendid appearance.

The theatre of the *Comedie Italienne* is built on the same plan as that of *Comedie Françoise*. It sometimes consists of a farrago of French and Italian, of comedy, farce, and pantomime.

The opera is the most superb spectacle of Paris, and excellent in its decorations, scenery, and dancing. The house is spacious, and in general well filled. There are about eighteen other theatres in Paris, which are open to the public every night throughout the year.

Amongst the diversions of the metropolis of France, a British traveller gives the following account of that of bull-baiting. "The place appointed for this diversion is a small amphitheatre built of wood. Around the area, in the ancient manner, are the caves and dens for the beasts of combat; and over these are the boxes and galleries for the spectators. It began with various combats of wolves, bears, and wild boars, with mastiffs; but the bull was reserved as a finishing stroke, to satiate the cruelty of the spectators. It was not long before my curiosity was sufficiently gratified. The bull, in springing to the first dog that entered, broke off his horn, close to his head, against the wall. He was then defenceless; but they continued to send in mastiffs, to the number of fourteen, that were suffered to hang about him till he fell to the ground. This I did not see, for I could not stay till the conclusion; but I heard from my servant, whom I left there, he was devouring alive for more than two hours; and that his nose, tongue, eyes, and throat, were eaten before he expired. Join with me here in retorting back on the French the appellation they bestow on us, of *peuple barbare*!"

The quarter of this city called the University was formerly inclosed by a wall, and surrounded with

with ditches; but, under the reign of Louis XIV., the wall was pulled down, and the ditches filled, to make it contiguous to the neighbouring suburbs. That of St. Germain is the most considerable, and is alone larger than the whole quarter called the University; but it is not so populous, on account of the many monasteries, hospitals, large houses, or hotels, and gardens, that take up a great part of it. Adjoining to this suburb are that of St. Michael, which is but small; that of St. James, which is pretty large; and that of St. Marceau, which is larger still; the last of all, which is the nearest to the river on the east, is that of St. Victor, which is very large, but not built all over. The University was founded by Charles the Great, and appropriated to the cultivation of the arts, sciences, &c. in general. It contains above 40 colleges, the principal of which are, the colleges of Sorbonne, Navarre, the Four Nations, and Physicians. Besides which there are in this city a great number of academies for literature and science; as the French academy, that of inscriptions and belles lettres, that of the sciences, and those of painting and sculpture, architecture, and chirurgery.

The most interesting of the manufactories of Paris is that of the Gobelins, a house so called from one Gobelin, an eminent dyer, who removed from Rheims to Paris, under the reign of Francis I., and bought that house. He found out the secret of dyeing in that beautiful scarlet colour, called, from his name, the scarlet of the Gobelins. Louis XIV. purchased that and some others, where he established a manufactory of the finest tapestries, and settled a number of gold and silver-smiths, embroiderers, painters, carvers, and other artificers, in every branch that relates to splendour and magnificence. Here are many things of most curious workmanship. The manufacture of plate-glass merits attention: besides which there are a number of others, too numerous to enter into a particular account of.

Paris is situated 245 miles south-east of London, 625 north-west of Vienna, and 630 north-east of Madrid; its environs are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns, and villages; some of them, being scattered on the edges of hills rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

2. *St. Denis*, commonly called *St. Denis en France*, a small neat town, about six miles N. of Paris. Here is an abbey of great antiquity, dedicated to St. Denis, the patron or tutelar saint of France. In its church were the sepulchres of the late French kings, the princes and princesses of the blood, and other distinguished personages. It was uncommonly rich in jewels and other treasures, contributed by religious bigotry; but they

have all been seized on by revolutionary cupidity.

SEINE AND OISE.

This department, which completely surrounds that of the last mentioned, extends about 75 miles in length, and 45 in breadth, where broadest. It is a very fertile and pleasant country, producing abundance of all kinds of provision, for the use of the metropolis. The chief places are,

1. *Versailles*, a considerable city, situated four leagues from Paris to the south-west, where Louis XIV. built a most magnificent palace, which was the usual residence of the kings of France till the revolution, and is now the occasional resort of Buonaparte. It stands on a rising ground, in the middle of a valley surrounded with hills, having, on the side towards Paris, a fine avenue leading to it through the town, which it divides into the Old and New, the latter of which contains a number of good houses and spacious streets. The whole city is computed to contain about 60,000 inhabitants. The apartments of the palace abound with innumerable paintings, statues, antiques, &c. Every room has a particular name, taken from the chief subject painted in it.

The hall of war is dedicated to Bellona, the frieze is adorned with trophies, bucklers, and thunderbolts. Over the doors are trophies of gilt metal, under which are represented the four seasons, by proper figures and festoons. The ceiling of this hall is adorned with five pictures. The largest, which is in the middle, represents France holding a thunderbolt in one hand, and a buckler in the other. The four others are in the sides. In the first is Bellona in a violent passion. The second represents Germany doing her best but fruitless endeavours to defend the imperial crown. In the third Spain seems to threaten France; but her soldiers are put to flight. The fourth shews Holland thrown back upon her lion. England is very properly not noticed in the subject. The chapel, built in 1699, is a most finished piece of architecture, sculpture, and painting, and is greatly admired.

The gardens are not less magnificent than the palace. Including the park, they are five miles in circumference, and are surrounded by high walls. In descending from a fine terrace into them, you meet with two basins where there are several water-spouts; and in the middle of each, a collection of spouts in the form of a wheat-sheaf, which rises twenty-nine feet high. The borders of these basins are adorned each with eight groups of brazen figures, representing rivers and nymphs; and four others of the same metal, representing

representing Cupids, little nymphs, and genii. In two angles of the parterre are two other basins of marble. The water-spouts that come from them form two sheets of water exceedingly fine; and on the border of each of these basins are two groups of figures of animals, made of brass.

There are several other basins, with water-spouts, and other curious water-works, all adorned with fine groups and statues of several kinds, which it would be too long to give a particular description of. The great canal is 32 fathoms broad, and 800 long, including the basins at each end. In the middle it is crossed by another canal, about 520 fathoms long. At each end of the large canal is a basin of an octagonal figure, 200 fathoms long, and 100 broad.

The orangery, or green-house, is a masterpiece in its kind. It is exposed to the south; and contains a large gallery, 408 feet long, and 32 broad, with twelve arched windows in the front; on each side of this gallery are two others, each 360 feet long. Before this green-house is a beautiful parterre, with a fine basin in the middle, where the water spouts out 40 feet high. It is adorned with four rows of columns, of the Tuscan order, groups of stone figures beautifully carved, vases, statues of white marble, &c. In the summer-time this parterre seems to be a forest of orange and lemon trees, myrtles, laurels, &c.

The labyrinth, or maze, is a fine grove, the several walks of which are so interwoven with each other, that it is a difficult matter to find the way out of it. At the entrance you meet with two statues, the one of Æsop, and the other of Cupid holding a clue of thread in his hand. At every turning of the avenues you meet with a beautiful fountain, adorned with a basin of fine shell-work, where they have represented, in the most natural manner, one of Æsop's fables; the subject of which is expressed in four lines, engraved in gold letters on a thin brass plate, with a black ground. In the park stands the beautiful palace of Trianon, the outside of which consists wholly of variegated marble, of exquisite workmanship.

Contiguous to Versailles is a noble seat called Marly, with beautiful gardens. The engine here for raising water from the Seine, to supply the reservoirs and water-works, is equally grand and ingenious, and, with the other water-works, cost immense sums; the water being conveyed over several hills to the great reservoir here, and from thence to Versailles.

2. *Fontainebleau*, a considerable town, situated in the middle of a forest of the same name, 35 miles south of Paris, and three from the Seine.

Its spacious royal castle, or palace, has chiefly contributed to its fame, all the halls or rooms of which are adorned with very fine paintings and carvings. The great room has a fine chimney, built by Henry IV. in 1599; it is 23 feet high, and 20 wide, and is adorned with four large Corinthian columns of spotted marble, with bases and chapiters of white marble. In the middle of the chimney is a table of black marble, on which stands the equestrian statue of Henry. The gardens are answerable to the magnificence of the palace, and are all adorned with statues and fountains. Beside the great mountain are many others, which greatly adorn this charming place. The town of Fontainebleau was considerably increased under the reigns of Henry IV. and Louis XIII. The latter built the parochial church, which is adorned with fine paintings: on each side of the great altar is a Corinthian column, 20 feet high; and over it is a picture of our Saviour curing the man sick of the palsy, exquisitely done by Varin.

3. *Pontoise*, a neat town built in the form of an amphitheatre, situated on the river Oise, 17 miles north-west of Paris. It has a good bridge over the river, from which it receives its name. It was taken by the English in 1345, by a singular stratagem: the ground being covered with snow, the assailants dressed themselves in white, with ladders painted white, and scaled the walls before the sentinel could perceive their approach. The parliament of Paris was banished here in 1720 and 1753.

4. *St. Cloud*, a borough, situated on the Seine, 15 miles below Paris. The Duke of Orleans built a palace here, with very fine gardens, which is now the favourite residence of Buonaparte, and which has recently been fitted up with the utmost splendour and magnificence.

OISE

Is so called from a river of the same name, which nearly runs through the centre of this department. It is about 60 miles long from east to west, and 30 from north to south. The chief places are,

1. *Beauvais*, the capital, an ancient city, 45 miles north of Paris. Besides the cathedral, here are several churches, convents, and courts of justice, together with manufactories of woollens, linens, serge, tapestry, &c.

2. *Compeigne*, a neat town, situated at the confluence of the Aisne and Oise, 45 miles north-east of Paris. It is the place where the Maid of Orleans was taken prisoner by the English in 1430. Here is a palace, which was repaired by Louis XIV. and the gardens finely laid out; with a Benedictine abbey, dedicated to St. Cornelius.

The

The trade of the place principally consists of corn, wood, and wool.

3. *Noyon*, a considerable town, seated on the river Oise, 60 miles north-east of Paris. It is a place of antiquity, capacious, and handsomely built on the declivity of a hill. It contains several churches, courts of justice, fountains, two hospitals, the same number of public gardens, and a cathedral. It has great trade in wheat and oats, many manufactories, and was the place of nativity of the celebrated John Calvin.

4. *Senlis*, a neat town seated on the declivity of a hill, by the river Nonette, 27 miles N.N.E. of Paris. It is almost entirely surrounded by a large forest; and is chiefly remarkable for its venerable cathedral, the steeple of which is said to be the highest in France.

AISNE,

A large department, situated to the east of the last-mentioned, is so named from a river of the same name, which falls into the Oise a little below Compeigne. It is about 100 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Laon*, a considerable town, situated on a hill, 77 miles N.E. of Paris. Its principal trade consists in corn and wine; and it is noted for excellent artichokes. The houses are well built, the streets regular; and here is a fine cathedral, several churches and convents, and a fine university. The inhabitants are estimated at 8000.

2. *Soissons*, a very ancient city, so named from the *Soissonese*, a people of ancient Gaul. It is situated on the river Aisne, 60 miles north-east of Paris. The houses are very old and ill-built, and the streets crooked and narrow. The inhabitants, about 12,000 in number, are chiefly engaged in the linen and woollen manufactures.

3. *St. Quentin*, or *St. Quintin*, situated on the river Somme, is famous for a lawn manufactory. The collegiate church, which is one of the finest in France, takes its name from St. Quentin. In the year 1557, a battle was fought here betwixt the French and Spaniards, called the battle of St. Quentin, in which the French were totally defeated.

SEINE AND MARNE,

Situated to the south-east of the last-mentioned, is so named from the rivers Seine and Marne, which pass through the centre of it. It extends about 80 miles in length, and 40 in breadth; and is a fertile and pleasant country, abounding in corn and pasture. The chief places are,

1. *Melun*, the capital, situated on the river Seine, 25 miles south-east of Paris. It is tolerably well built, and has several good houses. Its

situation on the Seine renders it a place of some trade.

2. *Meaux*, a considerable town seated on the Marne, 25 miles E.N.E. of Paris. The houses are well-built, and the streets wide and spacious. Here are extensive manufactures of linen and woollen goods. It is the see of a bishop, and has a fine cathedral.

MARNE,

A very extensive department, to the N.E. of the last mentioned, is so called from the river Marne, which has its source here. Its length from N.E. to S.W. is about 80 miles, and its breadth, where broadest, 70 miles. The chief places are,

1. *Chalons*, or *Chalon-sur-Maine*, a large city, situated on the Maine, 95 miles east of Paris. It has a flourishing manufactory of shalloons, which take their name from this town, and of other woollen stuffs. It contains thirteen parishes, about 2800 houses, and 18,000 inhabitants.

2. *Rheims*, seated in a plain between two hills, on the river Visle, seventy-five miles E. N. E. of Paris, one of the most ancient cities of France. Before the revolution it was the see of an archbishop, but it has since been removed. The cathedral, built before 406, is a curious Gothic structure; besides which here are several remains of antiquity, particularly an amphitheatre, a castle, a triumphal arch, and three gates, which to this day bear the names of Pagan deities. The houses of this city are low, with the streets long and narrow; but the grand square is very magnificent. The chief trade is that of wine; and several kinds of thin woollen stuffs, mixed with silk, are manufactured in this city, which contains about 30,000 inhabitants.

3. *Epernay*, a small town, situated on the river Maine. It is chiefly remarkable for its manufacture of fine cloth. The country about it produces excellent wine.

ARDENNES,

Situated north-east of Marne, is about 45 miles long, and 40 broad. The soil is fertile, producing excellent grain; and there are several extensive manufactures. The chief places are,

1. *Sedan*, a considerable town on the river Meuse. It has a strong castle, a well-furnished arsenal, a foundry of cannon, and is strongly fortified. Here are extensive manufactures of fine black cloth and serge. The celebrated marshal Turenne was born in this town.

2. *Mezières*, a small neat town, situated on the Meuse, 12 miles north-west of Sedan. It has manufactures of fine black cloth and other goods, in which its trade is very extensive.

AUBE,

A fertile country, abounding in wine, grain, and pasture. It is situated to the south of Marne; and extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth. Its chief places are,

1. *Troyes*, an ancient city, seated on the river Seine, 70 miles E.S.E. from Paris. As the stone in the neighbourhood is too tender to be employed in building, almost all the houses are of wood. It is pretty large, but far from being so populous as formerly. Being the see of a bishop, it has a fine cathedral; besides which here are fourteen other churches, four abbeys, ten convents, a college, and an hospital. Its trade is considerable, and several manufactures are carried on in it.

2. *Bar-sur-Aube*, an ancient town, seated on the river Aube, and noted for its excellent wines, which are in great request.

UPPER MARNE,

To the east of the last-mentioned, is divided nearly into two equal parts by the river Marne, which runs from south to north. It is about 60 miles long, and 40 broad, and abounds in wine and grain. Its chief places are,

1. *Chamont*, a neat town, seated on a mountain near the river Marne, noted for its great manufacture of coarse woollen cloth, and its trade in deer and goat-skins.

2. *Langres*, an ancient and considerable town, seated near the source of the river Marne, upon an elevated spot, which is said to be the highest in France. It is famous for its cutlery wares, which are in high estimation.

MEUSE,

Situated to the north-east of the preceding, is so termed from the river of the same name, which runs through it, and nearly divides it into two equal parts. It extends about 90 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Bar-le-duc*, the capital, situated on the small river Ornain, 138 miles east of Paris. It contains about 8000 inhabitants; and is divided into the Upper and Lower Towns, both of which are well built, having several good houses and fine streets. The wine made in the vicinity of this town is excellent.

2. *Verdun*, a considerable town, seated on the Meuse, famous for its sweetmeats. The houses are tolerably well built, and the streets wide and spacious. During the present war, this has been one of the principal depôts for the confinement of English prisoners.

MOSELLE,

So named from the river Moselle, which per-

vades the centre of this department. It is situated to the north-east of the preceding; and extends about 60 miles in length from east to west, and 40 in breadth from north to south. The chief places are,

1. *Metz*, an ancient city, situated at the confluence of the Moselle and Seille. The houses in general have an ancient appearance, and the streets are narrow; but the place is far from being disagreeable. It is the see of a bishop, and has a venerable cathedral, which is reckoned one of the finest in Europe. The square called Coislen, and the governor's house, are elegant. The Jews, about 3000 in number, live in a part of the town by themselves, where they have a synagogue. Here are noble barracks for the accommodation of both horse and foot-soldiers, who perform regular garrison duty. The inhabitants of this city, who are about 40,000 in number, are famous for making articles of confectionary and sweetmeats.

2. *Thionville*, 14 miles north of Metz, is likewise seated on the Moselle, over which it has a fine bridge, defended by a horn-work. This is a place of considerable trade, and has several flourishing manufactures of linen and woollen goods.

MEURTHE,

Situated to the south of Moselle, is so called from a river which rises in the department of Vosges, and falls into the Moselle in the centre of this department, which is 65 miles long, and 35 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Nancy*, or *Nanci*, the capital, a large and handsome city, situated on the Moselle, near its confluence with the Meurthe. It is divided into the Old and New Towns, which are separated by a canal. The first, though irregularly built, is rich and populous, and contains the palace of the ancient dukes of Lorraine. The new town is one of the handsomest in Europe, having beautiful houses, and elegant streets, laid out at right angles. This being a bishop's see, here is a large cathedral, an university, an academy of sciences, and a medical college.

2. *Luneville*, a large town, seated in what was formerly a marshy plain (but which has been drained), on the river Meurthe, 12 miles south-east of Nancy. Its magnificent castle, where the dukes of Lorraine formerly kept their court, is now converted into barracks. The treaty of peace between France and Germany was concluded here on the 3d of March, in 1801.

VOSGES,

To the south-west of the last-mentioned. Its name is derived from a large chain of mountains covered with wood, which separate it from the departments

Departments of Upper Saone and Upper Rhine. It is about 70 miles in length, and 35 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Epinal*, a neat town, situated on the Moselle, 35 miles south-east of Nancy. It is tolerably well built, and has a considerable trade, particularly in the making of paper, in which it excels.

2. *Neufchateau*, a populous trading town, seated in a fertile soil, on the river Mouzon, 30 miles N.N.W. of Epinal. Its traffic is considerable, arising from extensive manufactures of linen and woollen goods.

LOWER RHINE.

This department, which is so called from its contiguity to the celebrated river of that name, which forms its eastern boundary, extends about 65 miles in length, and 35 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Strasbourg*, an ancient city, seated at the confluence of the rivers Ill and Brasch, over the former of which there are eight bridges of communication. Here is also a famous bridge over the Rhine, which runs only a small distance from the city. This bridge is of wood, 3900 feet in length, and supported in the middle by an island, on which is a strong fortification. Here are six gates, and 200 streets, which in general are narrow; but that called the great street, and two others, are regular and handsome, and the public buildings elegant. In the cathedral is a curious clock, of admirable mechanism, which shews the motions of the constellations, the revolutions of the sun and moon, the days of the week, hours, &c. Another curiosity belonging to this cathedral is its pyramidal tower, 549 feet high, and which is ascended by 635 steps. Besides the cathedral, here are seven other churches, in one of which is a superb mausoleum of white marble, in memory of Marshal Saxe. The inhabitants of this city, exclusive of the garrison, are estimated at 60,000. It is 255 miles east of Paris.

2. *Wissemburg*, or *Weisseburg*, a considerable town, situated on the river Lanter. It is strongly fortified; and the lines before this place have been the scenes of many bloody rencontres between the Imperialists and the French, particularly at the beginning of the revolution in this country.

UPPER RHINE,

Situated to the south of the preceding, is about 60 miles in length, and 40 where broadest. The chief towns are,

1. *Colmar*, the capital, a considerable town, containing about 15,000 inhabitants, situated on

two small rivers, 37 miles south of Strasbourg. The houses are indifferently built, and the streets narrow and incommodious. Great quantities of wine are made in its vicinity.

2. *Brisach New*, a handsome town, about a mile from the Rhine, and nearly opposite to Old Brisach, in the kingdom of Baden, in Germany. This town, though not large, is well built, and the streets are laid out at right angles.

ISLE AND VILAINE,

This department, which is situated on the coast of the English Channel, to the south-west of that of La Manche, is so denominated from two rivers of similar names, which flow through it. It is nearly 50 miles long, and 40 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Rennes*, an ancient city, situated at the conflux of the rivers Isle and Vilaine, about 42 miles from the sea, is large and populous; and several of the principal streets are handsome, as the conflagration in the year 1720, which almost reduced the whole place to ashes, obliged the inhabitants to rebuild them, which they have done in a regular manner: the principal square is elegant. Here are eight parish-churches besides the cathedral, and several convents. The inhabitants are estimated at 35,000.

2. *St. Malo*, a small but populous sea-port, situated on a little island (which is joined to the continent by a mole or causeway, six or seven hundred yards in length, at the head of which is a strong fort), on the northern coast of this department. Here is a large harbour, but of difficult access, for the defence of which there are several forts and other works, with a good garrison. The trade of the town, in time of peace, is very considerable: in particular it sends a number of ships to the cod fishery; and, in time of war, fits out many privateers.

LOWER LOIRE,

Situated to the south-west of the preceding department, along the coast of the Bay of Biscay, is about 50 miles long, and 40 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Nantes*, an ancient and noble city, with a situation equally advantageous and agreeable, being built on the easy declivity of a hill, sloping on every side to the river Loire, over which there is a bridge, which, including some islands, is three miles in length. Exactly opposite to the spot on which the town stands, the river is divided into several channels, by a number of small islands, most of which are covered with elegant houses. The great quay is more than a mile in length; and the buildings are in general superb, and have been chiefly erected since

the peace of 1763. Before the revolution, its ships were so numerous, and its commerce so extensive, that it was commonly called the Liverpool of France. The inhabitants are computed at 60,000, who make a great quantity of salt. Vessels of large burden cannot get up further than within three miles of the town, at the eastern extremity of which stands the castle, in which the ancient dukes of Bretagne held their residence.

2. *Guerande*, a considerable town, situated about three miles from the sea, and 37 west of Nantes. It has a great trade, particularly in fine white salt, of which there are extensive pans in the vicinage of the town.

NORTH COAST.

This department, situated to the west of Isle and Vilaine, extends about 55 miles in length, and 35 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *St. Brieux*, the capital, which is but an insignificant place, with a small harbour, situated about a mile from the sea. It contains nothing remarkable.

2. *Dinan*, a large town, which is strong both by nature and art. The inhabitants, about 4000 in number, carry on a great trade in thread.

FINISTERRE,

Situated to the west of the preceding, is the most westerly land in France. It is about 65 miles long, and 45 broad; but owing to its peninsular situation, the climate is moist and rather unwholesome. The chief places are,

1. *Quimper*, or *Quimper Corentin*, the capital, situated on the river Oder, three miles S.S.E. of Brest. It is large and populous, with a good trade; the barks bringing up goods, at high water, to the very town.

2. *Brest*, a strong sea-port town, seated on the north side of a large commodious bay or harbour, which opens to the ocean in the most extreme western part of the continent of France. It stands upon a declivity; and the streets are narrow and crooked. It is defended by a castle, which stands on a rock, very steep towards the sea, and on the land side surrounded with a broad ditch, and some other fortifications. The harbour lies between the town and the suburb called Recouvrance, which is as large as half the place. It is encompassed with very fine quays, on which are built several warehouses, generally filled with naval stores. The road is extremely spacious; but the entrance of it, called the Goulet, or Gullet, by reason of its narrowness, is exceeding difficult, because of certain rocks that lie under water at high tide.

This part, therefore, is the more secure retreat for ships of war, for which it is the only port France has on this side the Mediterranean.

3. *Morlaix*, a well-built, populous, walled town, situated on a river of the same name, about six miles from the sea. The houses are well built, and the streets open and regular. The church of Notre Dame is a singular structure, and the hospital very handsome. The harbour is defended by Fort Taureau, which stands upon an island; and the trade is very considerable in flax, canvas, paper, linen cloth, thread, &c.

MORBIHAN,

Situated south-east of the last-mentioned, is about 60 miles long, and 35 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Vannes*, or *Vennes*, a sea-port town, situated advantageously for trade, at the mouth of two small rivers, which form a harbour in the arm of the sea, called Morbihan. The town is large and well built, having two large suburbs. The principal commerce is in wheat and rye to Spain, and also in hard iron and fish.

2. *Orient*, or *Port l'Orient*, a regular and handsome town, built in 1720 by the French East India Company, who made it the exclusive mart of their commerce. The houses are well built, and the streets are laid out at right angles; but the harbour, though good, is not spacious; and the trade has, during the late and present war, been nearly annihilated.

SARTHE,

Situated eastward of the preceding, is so called from a river of the same name, which passes through it. It is about 60 miles long, and 40 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Le Mans*, a large, handsome, and well-built town, seated on the river Sarthe, famous for its excellent poultry, known at Paris by the name of the pullets of Mans; and its wax and stuffs are very famous. It contains about 14,000 inhabitants.

2. *La Fleche*, a small, neat town, seated on one of the principal tributary streams of the Loire, over which it has a fine bridge. It is a place of some trade, and has thriving manufactures.

MAYENNE,

Situated directly eastward of the preceding, is nearly in the form of a long square, being about 50 miles long, and 40 broad. Its only place worthy notice is

Laval, a large town seated on the river Mayenne, 40 miles west of Mans. The inhabitants, who are computed to exceed 18,000, carry on a great

great trade in linens of all kinds and qualities, which, to a great extent, are fabricated here. The neighbouring quarries produce excellent marble, with which several of the houses in the town are ornamented.

MAYENNE AND LOIRE,

So called from the junction of the rivers Mayenne and Loire in this department, is situated to the south of Mayenne. Its length is about 55 miles, and its breadth 45. The chief towns are,

1. *Angers*, the capital, a large city, seated near the confluence of the Sarthe and Loire, 175 miles south-west of Paris; and containing, besides the cathedral, a strong castle, in which is an iron cage, called the queen of Sicily's cage, and some remains of Roman antiquities. The first walls of the city were built by John, king of England, and duke of Anjou. The houses are regularly built, and all covered with slate, on which account Angers is frequently called the Black Town. The castle is flanked with eighteen large round towers. The inhabitants, about 28,000 in number, are employed chiefly in bleaching wax and linen, refining sugar, and making camblets, serges, handkerchiefs, sail-cloth, and fine woollen stuffs, striped with silk and gold.

2. *Saumur*, a town seated on the south banks of the river Loire, over which it has a famous stone bridge, erected in 1768, which contains twelve elliptical arches, each sixty feet in diameter. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in saltpetre, sugar, steel, iron-works, medals, rings, chaplets, and strings of beads.

INDRE AND LOIRE,

Situated to the south-east of the preceding. It comprises the whole of the ancient province of Tournay; and is about 70 miles long, and 65 broad. The climate is very mild, and the soil, in general, fertile. The chief places are,

1. *Tours*, the capital, which anciently gave name to the province of Touraine: it is situated on the Loire, over which there is one of the finest bridges in Europe, consisting of fifteen elliptical arches, each seventy-five feet in diameter. It is a large ancient city, and has a fine public street in the centre of the town, full a mile in length, and finely paved on each side. The cathedral is a fine building, containing a library, in which are some ancient manuscripts; besides which, here are six other churches, and several fine public buildings. Under the ministry of Cardinal Richlieu, 27,000 persons were employed here in the silk manufacture. At present, the whole number of inhabitants is about 35,000, chiefly

engaged in that species of trade, and in making wines and brandy. In 737, Charles Martel defeated the Saracens near this place, with very great slaughter. The celebrated historian, Rapin, was a native of this town.

2. *Loches*, a small town, situated on the river Indre, and famous for a strong castle, in one of the four subterraneous passages of which Louis Sforza, duke of Milan, taken in battle by Louis XII. was kept prisoner ten years; and where he died. In one of the two cages also, which are kept in this castle, Cardinal Balve, bishop of Algiers, was confined by Louis XII.; but after five years, was released.

LOIRET.

This department derives its name from a considerable rivulet called the Loiret, which issues out of the earth, from a very narrow aperture, in a prodigious column, and forms immediately a rapid stream, which, after a course of six miles, is lost in the Loire. It extends about 70 miles in length from east to west, and 50 in breadth from north to south. The chief places are,

1. *Orleans*, an ancient city, seated on the Loire, the entrance into which is noble and striking from the south, over a handsome bridge, the boldness and lightness of which are greatly admired. It consists of nine arches, the centre one of which is 100 feet in the span. This city is built in the form of an oval, and contains six principal gates, twenty-two parishes, and about 40,000 inhabitants. The streets are spacious; but they are generally ill-built, one only excepted, which leads from the bridge, and is composed of modern elegant buildings. The commerce, in time of peace, is very considerable in wines, brandies, groceries, and particularly sugar, here being several refining-houses, which send great quantities to Paris and other cities. Here is also a large parchment manufactory. On the 8th of May, 1429, Orleans, then closely besieged by the English, was relieved by Joan of Arc, commonly called the Maid of Orleans; and the anniversary of that deliverance is still kept here. To perpetuate the memory of it, a monument of brass was erected on the bridge. In the Hotel de Ville is a portrait of the same extraordinary woman: it was done in 1581, and is the oldest extant. The environs of Orleans, more especially to the south of the Loire, are very agreeable. It stands 60 miles S.S.W. of Paris.

2. *Beaugency*, a small town, situated on the Loire, over which is a handsome stone bridge, about twelve miles below Orleans. It has a manufactory of serges and other woollen stuffs, and is a great thoroughfare.

EURE AND LOIRE,

Situated to the north-west of the preceding, extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth. Its name is derived from the confluence of two rivers, which bear the same name as this department. The chief towns are,

1. *Chartres*, a very ancient city, which stands on the Eure, 45 miles south-west of Paris. The chief trade is in brandy and corn. The grove of the Druids, mentioned by Julius Cæsar, was on the top of a hill near this town; and there is shewn in the cathedral, which is esteemed one of the most beautiful in the kingdom, a well, into which many Christians were thrown by order of the Proconsul Querinus. The inhabitants of this city are estimated at 10,000.

2. *Chateau-Dun*, an ancient town, seated on an eminence, in which there is a castle, built by the counts of Dunois, dukes of Longueville. It contains two churches, and about 3000 inhabitants. The streets are straight, the houses uniform, and the great square spacious.

LOIRE AND CHER,

Situated to the south of the preceding, is about 95 miles in length from N.E. to S.W. and 35 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Blois*, the capital, an ancient and commercial city, standing on the Loire, over which it has a neat stone bridge. The spectator is struck with the idea of an amphitheatre on seeing the manner in which the streets are disposed on the side of a hill, like rows of seats, one above another. The French language is spoken here in its greatest purity. It has manufactures in serges and ticking, and a great trade in wines and brandies. In the castle are shewn the chambers where the duke of Guise, and his brother the cardinal, were assassinated. The counts of Blois were in former times the most powerful lords in France.

2. *Vendome*, a considerable town, seated on the Loire, 95 miles south-west of Paris. The houses are well built, and the streets open and straight. The principal traffic arises from the produce of excellent wine and brandy.

CHER

Is so called from a river of the same which passes through it. It is situate S.E. of the last-mentioned; and is in length about 60 miles, and in breadth 45. The chief towns are,

1. *Bourges*, the capital, a town of considerable magnitude, and of great antiquity, which most of the buildings evince, by the barbarism of their construction. It is seated on the river Yare, 125 south of Paris. The cathedral is a most magni-

ficent edifice, though its external architecture does not correspond in beauty or symmetry with its interior, which is of prodigious dimensions, and abounding in painted glass. This city, though one of the most extensive in France, hardly contains 25,000 inhabitants, who carry on extensive manufactures in stockings and stuffs.

2. *Mehun*, an ancient town, seated on the river Yare, has a castle built by Charles VII. in which he starved himself to death, for fear of being poisoned by his son, the infamous Louis XI.

INDRE

Is so called from the river Indre, which pervades it from S.E. to N.W. It is a champagne country, abounding in wines and brandy. The length is about 60, and the breadth 40 miles. The chief towns are,

1. *Chateauroux*, an inconsiderable place, situate on the river Indre, 148 miles south of Paris. The houses are low, and the streets narrow; but here are extensive manufactures of superfine broad-cloths.

2. *Issoudun*, an extensive manufacturing town, seated on the river Theols, 17 miles north-east of Chateauroux. The inhabitants, about 10,000 in number, carry on a great trade in hats, cloth, and stockings.

NIEVRE, OR NYEVRE,

Situated to the east of the department of Cher, comprises what, previous to the revolution, formed the province of Nivernois. It is pretty fertile, and contains mines of iron and pit-coal; and extends about 60 miles in length, and 45 in width. The chief towns are,

1. *Nevers*, the capital, that takes its name from the little rivulet Nievre, which, with the Allier, falls, near the town, into the Loire. It contains several fine buildings, particularly the ancient ducal palace, and about 8000 inhabitants. Here are manufactories of glass, china, and works of enamel, and a stately bridge over the Loire.

2. *Cosne*, a manufacturing town, situated on the Loire, famous for its iron mines, and the late national, but now imperial manufactory of ship's anchors, cutlery, and all kinds of hardware.

ALLIER.

This department comprises nearly the whole of the ancient province of Bourbonnois, from the ancient dukes of which the late kings of France were descended, whence arises the appellation of the *Bourbons*. It is bounded on the north by the departments of Nievre and Cher, and is so called from the Allier, which crosses it from south to north, dividing it into nearly two equal parts.

It

It extends about 70 miles in length from east to west, and 40 from north to south. The only place that merits description is

Moulins, the capital, which received its name from the numerous mills in its vicinity. It has manufactures of hardware, iron, steel, &c. and is, upon the whole, a handsome populous town, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. In one of the churches is the magnificent tomb of Henry, the second duke of Montmorenci, who fell a sacrifice to the resentment of Cardinal Richlieu; and near the town there is an admirable mineral spring, and a modern bridge, of thirteen arches, over the Allier, near which river it is situated.

YONNE,

Which is situated to the north of the department of Nièvre, is so denominated from the river Yonne, which passes through it in a north-western direction. It is nearly 50 miles long, and 40 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Auxerre*, an ancient city, seated on the declivity of a hill, at the foot of which flows the river Yonne. The houses are neatly, or rather anciently, built, and the streets are not handsome. It contains twelve parish-churches, two hospitals, several fountains, and a fine square. The inhabitants, about 16,000 in number, carry on a considerable trade in brandy and cognac.

2. *Sens*, a considerable town on the Yonne, which, before the revolution, was the see of an archbishop. It contains a fine Gothic cathedral, sixty-six churches, and fourteen abbeys and convents, together with several fine public structures.

COTE D'OR,

An extensive department, to the south-east of Yonne: it extends about 70 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and is a very pleasant and productive country. The chief places are,

1. *Dijon*, an ancient and extensive city, situated on the river Saône, 138 miles S.E. of Paris. The streets are broad, well paved, and straight, and the squares and public structures elegant. Here are numerous churches and convents, an academy of science, a college, and several hospitals. The inhabitants, about 25,000 in number, are famous for the excellence of their wines and brandy.

2. *Chatillon-sur-Seine*, a considerable town, seated on the Seine, which passes through it, 36 miles N.N.W. of Dijon. It has extensive iron mines in its immediate vicinity.

SAONE AND LOIRE,

To the south of the preceding, is about 50 miles long, and nearly of a similar breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Macon*, the capital, a manufacturing town, seated near the river Saone, 88 miles S.E. of Paris. It is but indifferently built; and the streets are narrow and crooked. In a council held here, in 585, it was enacted, that if a layman on horseback should meet a priest on foot, the former should descend to do reverence to the priest!

2. *Chalons-sur-Saone*, an extensive commercial town, seated on the Saone. It has a great trade in wood; and is the staple of iron for Lyons and other parts.

UPPER SAONE,

Situated to the north-east of Cote d'Or, is about 60 miles long, and 30 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Vesoul*, an ancient town, situated on the Saone, 200 miles S.E. of Paris. The houses are ill-built, and the streets irregular. Except an extensive woollen manufactory, here is nothing deserving particular notice.

2. *Gray*, a neat town, situated on the fine river Saone, which here begins to be navigable, and which greatly contributes to the trade of the town, being the depôt of the produce of the circumjacent country, which is sent by this means into the Rhone, and from thence to all parts of the south of France.

DOUBS.

This department, which is so denominated from a river bearing its name, is situated south-east of the last-mentioned. It is nearly 40 miles square. Its principal and only town of note is

Besançon, an ancient city, formerly the capital of the Franche Comté. It is seated on a peninsula, formed by the river Doubs, 208 miles S.E. of Paris; and contains eight churches, and about 20,000 inhabitants. The buildings in general have an ancient appearance; but there are several neat public edifices.

JURA,

Situated to the south-west of Doubs, contains mines of iron of a superior quality, of copper, lead, and salt, and many quarries of black marble, of jasper of different colours, and of alabaster. It takes its name from the mountains of Jura; and extends about 70 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. The chief towns are,

1. *Lons le Saulnier*, an ancient place, formerly celebrated for its salt-works, which are now worn out. The buildings are old, and the whole has rather a decayed appearance.

2. *Dole*, a large and populous town, seated on the river Doubs, is famous for its contiguous

mines of iron, lead, and copper, the workmen belonging to which chiefly comprise the inhabitants of this town, which is indifferently built, though with some good houses.

3. *Salins*, a neat town, remarkable for its salt-works, the largest of which is in the middle of the town, and which employs a great number of hands.

AIN

Is so denominated from a river of the same name, which rises in Mount Jura, and falls into the Rhone a short distance above Lyons. Its length is about 50 miles, and it is nearly of similar breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Bourg*, a considerable town, seated on a small river, which, after a short course, falls into the Rhone. It is well built, with spacious and commodious streets; and has a good trade to Lyons and the circumjacent towns.

2. *Ponte de Verle*, a large town, situated on a river of the same name, 12 miles N.N.W. of Bourg. It has manufactures of stuffs called Augustines, and also of tapestry for the covering of arm-chairs and sofas.

3. *Trevoux*, a handsome town, situated on the Saone, 11 miles north of Lyons. The houses are handsome, and the streets laid out at right angles. The public buildings are magnificent; and here is a fine hospital, founded by Mademoiselle de Montpensier. Here is a noted printing-office, in which the "*Dictionnaire Universel*" was first published, and which is greatly esteemed.

VIENNE.

This department is situated to the south of that of the Indre and Loire; and is about 80 miles long, and 40 broad. The principal towns are,

1. *Poitiers*, an ancient town, seated on a hill near the river Clain. It would be one of the most considerable places in this empire, if its population equalled its extent; but it includes a number of fields and gardens within its circuit; and the inhabitants do not exceed 20,000. It has several Roman antiquities, particularly a famous amphitheatre, which is partly dilapidated; and there is also a triumphal arch, which still serves as a gate for the principal entrance. The manufactures of this place are stockings, hats, and combs. Vipers abound in the vicinity in such numbers, that they are sent even as far as Venice to make treacle. In 1356, a memorable battle was fought here between the English under Henry V., and John, king of France, in which the latter was defeated and taken prisoner.

2. *Lusignan*, a neat town, seated on the river

Vonne, 12 miles S. W. of Poitiers. It has a considerable trade in wine and brandy.

DEUX SEVRES,

Situated to the west of Vienne, is so denominated from two rivers of the same name, which run across it. It is about 80 miles long, and 40 broad. The principal towns are,

1. *Niort*, a large place seated on the river Sevre, with manufactures of serges, druggets, and other coarse woollen goods; and its dry sweetmeats are much esteemed.

2. *Thouars*, a considerable town, seated on the river Thore, which soon afterwards falls into the Loire. The castle of its ancient dukes, at one end of the town, is seated on a rock, surrounded by walls 120 feet high, which, from the whiteness of the stone, might be supposed to be not more than ten years old.

VENDEE.

This department is so denominated from a small river of the same name, which crosses it from east to west. It is nearly 60 miles long, and 50 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Fontenay le Compte*, a considerable town, seated on the river Vendee. It is tolerably well built, having several good streets. Here are extensive woollen manufactures.

2. *Sables*, a small town, situated on the coast, where there is a harbour capable of containing vessels of 150 tons. It has a considerable trade.

LOWER CHARENTE,

Situated to the south of the preceding, upon the coast of the Bay of Biscay, being about 100 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. Its name is derived from the river Charente, which crosses it in the centre. The chief places are,

1. *Sainte*, a neat town, seated on an eminence near the Charente, 26 miles S.E. of Rochefort. Here are several monuments of antiquity, of which the most famous are the amphitheatre, the aqueducts, and triumphal arch on the bridge over its river.

2. *Rochefort*, a handsome maritime town on the Charente, 15 miles from its mouth, and about 21 from Rochelle. It was erected by order of Louis XIV. in 1664; and has a capacious and excellent dock for building, careening, and refitting ships of war, a victualling-office, an hospital for sick and wounded seamen, a marine academy, a manufactory of sail-cloth, a foundery, &c. The streets are uniformly broad, and in straight lines; and the houses low, but regular. Its population is estimated at 10,000; but the air is unwholesome, and the water of bad quality. The river is broad, deep, and well guarded by forts to its

its mouth, and the harbour is convenient and large.

3. *Rochelle*, or *La Rochelle*, before the revolution, the capital of this government, situated on the sea-coast, six miles from the Isle of Rhé. It is a handsome town, with five gates; and the houses are mostly supported by piazzas, under which persons may walk in all weathers; and the streets, in general, are as straight as a line. The inhabitants, in time of peace, carry on a great trade to the French colonies. It has a fine port, of a circular form, with strong fortifications, and a prodigious mole, constructed by Cardinal Richelieu, 4482 feet in extent. This town contains 15,000 inhabitants; but the salt marshes affect the air of this place greatly.

CHARENTE,

Situated to the east of the preceding, extends about 80 miles in length, and 40 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Angoulême*, an inconsiderable town, seated on a mountain, surrounded with rocks, at the foot of which runs the river Charente. It is meanly built, and has nothing remarkable.

2. *Cognac*, a small town, principally noted for the excellent brandy so well known throughout Europe by the name of this town.

CREUSE,

Which comprises the ancient province of Marche: it extends about 55 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. It is not very fertile; but the inhabitants feed vast herds of cattle. The chief town is

Gueret, a small town seated near the Creuse. Its principal trade is in cattle. It has a fine hospital, founded by a benevolent lady.

UPPER VIENNE,

Situated to the west of Creuse, is about 60 miles long, and 25 broad. The climate is cold, and the face of the country mountainous. The chief places are,

1. *Limoges*, the capital, a large and ancient city. The streets are narrow, and the houses mean; but there are several fine squares and fountains. Here are manufactures of paper, leather, and woollen cloth; four aqueducts, constructed by the Romans, and other remains of antiquity.

2. *St. Leonard*, an ancient town, situated on the river Vienne, 12 miles from Limoges. There are manufactories of paper and cloth in the neighbourhood.

3. *Chalus*, a town and castle, situated at the spring of the Tardouere, one of the rivers that fall into the Charente, 18 miles N.W. of Limoges. This little city had the title of a county or earl-

dom, and belonged formerly to the viscounts of Limoges. It happened that a native found upon his estate treasure which had been buried there many ages before: it consisted of the statues of an emperor and his consort, sitting round a table, with their children. Richard I. king of England, who was then master of Limosin, pretended that the treasure belonged to him, as sovereign lord of the country where it was found. The possessor was willing to give him part of it; but seeing that the king claimed the whole, he implored the protection of the viscount of Limosin, who gave him leave to take sanctuary in his castle of Chalus. Richard, going to besiege the place, was wounded by an arrow, shot by a cross-bowman, and died of the wound, April 6, 1199. There is a famous horse-fair kept here every year on St. George's day.

CORREZE,

To the south-east of the preceding, extends about 60 miles long, by 50 broad. The climate is salubrious, and the soil fertile. The principal places are,

1. *Tulles*, situated in a country full of mountains and precipices, at the confluence of the rivers Correze and Solane, 37 miles from Limoges. The cathedral is famous for its steeple, which is very high and curious.

2. *Brives*, an ancient town, seated near the river Correze. The houses are well built, and the streets spacious; the public buildings are elegant, and the walks delightful. Here are manufactures of silk handkerchiefs, muslin, gauzes, &c.

PUY DE DOME,

One of the most pleasant and fertile departments in France, in which may be seen at one view orchards, meadows, vineyards, and arable land. It is situated to the north-east of the preceding department, is 60 miles long, and nearly of the same breadth where broadest. The chief towns are,

1. *Clermont*, the capital, agreeably situated near the mountain called Puy de Dome. It was built by the emperor Augustus, and thence was anciently called *Augustonemetum*, or *Augustonemosum*. In the neighbourhood are several petrifying springs, of one of which we have the following account from Mr. Wraxall. "The situation of Clermont is agreeable, on a little eminence, to which the access is gradual and easy. The place itself seems to have been built in an age the most barbarous. The streets are so narrow and winding that no carriage can enter them, and the buildings correspond to the other parts; but, to compensate for the inconvenience, the

the suburbs are charming, and the houses modern and elegant. I visited the petrifying spring which Charles IX. is said to have surveyed with so much wonder and pleasure. It is only a quarter of a mile from the town. In the course of ages it has formed a ridge of stone, or incrustation, not less than 16 feet in height, above 100 feet long, and in some parts near 10 in thickness. As it impeded, and at length totally stopped, the current of a little rivulet which intersected its course, the inhabitants were obliged to dig a passage through it. The stream is now directed into another channel, and has begun to form a new bridge across the rivulet into which it falls." In the year 1095 pope Urban held a council here, when the first crusade was resolved upon.

2. *Thiers*, or *Thiern*, a considerable town, famous for a variety of manufactures, chiefly of statuary, hardware, cutlery, paper, cards, &c. It is so remarkably seated on the side of a hill, that on whatever side it is viewed one half of the town is not seen; and from this circumstance it is said to derive its name.

CANTAL,

A department so called from a high mountain in its centre, situated to the S.S.W of the preceding. It is nearly 60 miles long, and 55 broad. The chief towns are,

1. *St. Flour*, situated at the foot of mount Cantal, 250 miles S. of Paris. It took its name from that of a bishop, who, having come hither from Languedoc to preach the gospel, towards the end of the fourth century, died and was buried here. Here is a considerable traffic in rye and mules, as well as in knives, carpets, and cloths. Its annual fairs are greatly attended.

2. *Aurillac*, a populous and trading town seated on the river Jordanne, 30 miles S.W. of St. Flour. The horses are reckoned the best in France.

RHONE AND LOIRE.

In the tabular view presented at the beginning of our description of this empire, the superficial contents of these departments have been stated separately, but they are generally united in geographical delineation. They are situated to the east of Puy de Dome, and extend about 60 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Lyons*, the capital, a large, ancient, and famous city, one of the finest and most considerable in the empire. It was founded by the Romans, about 42 years before Christ, who made it the centre of their commerce with the Gauls. About 175 A.D. it was destroyed by fire, but was restored by the munificence of Nero. It still contains several Roman antiquities; and

here are four gates, leading to the four great roads traced by Agrippa. It is seated at the conflux of the rivers Rhone and Saone, 220 miles S.E. of Paris, and had formerly the Latin name of *Lugdunum*, from a place of the Gauls that stood hereabouts called *Lugdun*, i.e. "the hill of ravens." The houses, in general, are lofty and well built, several of the streets wide and regular, and the public buildings magnificent, as the Hotel de Ville, theatre, infirmary, general hospital, exchange, custom-house, courts of justice, cathedral, and two fine squares, in one of which, before the revolution, was an equestrian statue in brass of Louis XVI. Here is a noble stone bridge, 1560 feet long, over the Rhone, with two others of wood and one of stone over the Saone. As the manufactures of this city were chiefly articles of luxury, silk, cloths of gold and silver, &c. it was naturally attached to the ancient aristocracy of France, though with consequences incalculably fatal to its prosperity. During the infuriated reign of the Jacobins, in 1793, it was besieged, captured, and, after the most horrid massacres, was doomed to destruction: but the decree was only partially executed; for in 1794, on the destruction of the Jacobin faction, it was decreed that it should be restored to its ancient rank among the states of France, and that encouragement should be given to its ruined commerce, though Lyons will probably never recover its ancient extent and opulence. Before the recent calamities it contained 160,000 inhabitants; but by the census of 1805 it had only 109,507: hence it appears that upwards of 50,000 individuals fell a sacrifice to revolutionary phrensy, who became a prey to the most horrid barbarity, being led in droves, of 1 or 200 together, and forcibly pushed into the Rhone, or mowed down by surrounding artillery.

2. *Montbrisson*, the capital of the department of the Loire, which carries on some trade, and has manufactories of fire-arms, and other works of iron and steel. In the neighbourhood are several celebrated mineral springs.

3. *Roanne*, a considerable town, in the department of the Loire, upon the river of which name it is seated, 45 miles N.W. of Lyons. It is a convenient staple for merchandize sent from Lyons, down this river, and by the canal of Brienne, into the Seine, and thence to Paris.

ISERE,

Situated to the south-east of the preceding, is so called from a large river of the same name which crosses its centre, from north-east to south-west. It extends about 90 miles in length, from north-west to south-east, but in no part exceeds 40 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Grenoble*,

1. *Grenoble*, the chief town, situated at the conflux of the Isere and Drac, in a plain, at the foot of the mountains, 285 miles south-east of Paris. This city is well peopled, and commanded by a fort called la Bastille. The Isere divides the city into two unequal parts. Here are no fine buildings, except the bishop's palace, which owes its beauty to Cardinal Le Camus, bishop of Grenoble, and is adorned by excellent paintings, representing our Saviour's life and passion, and by the picture of the bishop. The town was fortified by the Chevalier de Ville. The skins and gloves of Grenoble are very much esteemed; but the woollen stuffs are coarse.

2. *Vienne*, an ancient city seated on the Rhone, 40 miles N.W. from Grenoble. It was once a Roman colony, and afterwards the capital of the kingdom of Burgundy. It is large, and contains several remains of Roman buildings, a manufactory of sword-blades, which are the best in France, and another of paper. Some mineral springs are found in the district called Viennois; and its wines are in great request.

DROME,

So denominated from a river of the same name, which, after crossing it from east to west, falls into the Rhone, is situated to the south-west of Isere. Its length is nearly 80 miles, and its breadth 40. The principal places are,

1. *Valence*, a place of great antiquity, which stands on the Rhone, 335 miles S.E. of Paris. It is well built, and has several fine streets, contains an university, and is well fortified.

2. *Romans*, an ancient town seated on the Isere, which has been compared by Rossin, and other travellers who have visited Palestine, to Jerusalem, having a similar situation, and there being a great resemblance in the surrounding scenery.

UPPER ALPS,

Situated to the eastward of the preceding, is so termed from its proximity to the Alps, the highest of which form its eastern boundary. It is nearly 70 miles long, and 40 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Gap*, the capital, seated at the foot of a mountain. It has nothing worthy of notice, except a famous mineral well, which is deemed antiscorbutic.

2. *Embrun*, or *Ambrun*, which stands on a steep rock, at the foot of which runs the Durance, 17 miles E. of Gap. It is tolerably well built, contains 5 parishes, and nearly 10,000 inhabitants; and was, before the revolution, the see of an archbishop, who styled himself prince and count of Ambrun,

GIRONDE,

A maritime department, situated on the bay of Biscay, to the south of Lower Charente. Its name is derived from the river Gironde, which falls into the Atlantic below Bourdeaux. The length and breadth are nearly equal, forming a square of about 70 miles. The chief places are,

1. *Bourdeaux*, an ancient city seated on the Garonne, about 325 miles S.W. of Paris. It is one of the largest cities in France, and carries on a great trade in wines and brandy with most parts of Europe, in time of peace, the tide rising so high in the river that ships of great burden can come up to the quay, which is nearly a mile in length, and toward it all the principal streets in the city lead. Bourdeaux presents few remains of antiquity. The cathedral appears to be very old, and has suffered considerably from the effects of time. The unfortunate duke of Guyenne, brother to Louis XI., who was poisoned in 1473, lies buried before the high altar. The adjacent country, more particularly the Pays de Medoc, which produces the finest claret, is exceedingly pleasant. According to the census of 1805, this city contained 112,844 inhabitants.

2. *Blaye*, a small sea-port town, 17 miles N.W. of Bourdeaux, seated on the river Gironde where it is near 4000 yards wide. Vessels deposit their arms and cannon here before they proceed to Bourdeaux.

DORDOGNE,

To the east of Gironde, extends about 70 miles in length, and is nearly of a similar breadth where broadest. The towns are numerous, but unimportant. The principal is

Perigueux, an ancient town, situated among mines of iron, and mineral waters. It stands on the river Isle, and has some remains of Roman antiquities; among which are the remains of an amphitheatre, and a temple of Venus. It is famous for its partridge pies, which are sent all over Europe.

LOT AND GARONNE,

Situated south of the preceding, is so termed from the junction of two rivers of the same names in this department. It extends about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth. The chief towns are,

1. *Agen*, an ancient and populous city, seated on the Garonne. It is a very disagreeable place, the houses being ill built, and the streets narrow and dirty. Here is one building deserving particular notice: it is a chapel belonging to a nunnery of Carmelites. The walls are exquisitely painted in *chiaro oscuro*; and the deception of the

the roof, which is executed in the same manner, is admirable. Agen has anciently been fortified; and the Gothic battlements and turrets yet remain almost entire round the whole place. Prunes form a great article of trade here; and it has some manufactures.

2. *Nerac*, a handsome town, seated on the river Baise, by which it is divided into two parts, termed Great and Little Nerac. Here is an ancient palace of the dukes of Navarre.

LOT,

So denominated from the river Lot, which rises in this department, is seated to the north-east of the preceding. It extends about 80 miles long, and nearly 40 broad. The only place of note is

Cahors, a small town, seated on a peninsula made by the river Lot, in a country celebrated chiefly for its excellent wines. The houses are neatly built; but here is nothing remarkable.

AVEYRON, OR AVEIRON,

Situated to the south-east of Lot, is, like most others, so denominated from a river of a similar name. Its length is about 70 miles, and breadth 55. The chief places are,

1. *Rodes*, or *Rodez*, a considerable town, seated on the rapid river Aveyron. It has manufactures of grey cloth and serges, steel, iron, copper, vitriol, and sulphur; but is chiefly noted for its four great annual fairs, at which great number of mules are sold.

2. *Ville Franche*, a large town, seated on the river Aveira, 24 miles W. of Rodez, is well built, and has several fine streets. It carries on a great trade in linen cloth.

LANDES,

Situated to the south of Gironde, on the coast of the Bay of Biscay, takes its name from the district called Landes. This is a barren sandy country, covered with fern, pines, and the holm-tree, of the bark of which corks are made. The soil, however, is improved by manuring it with marle, and sowing it with rye. It is nearly 80 miles square; but, considering its extent, is thinly peopled. The only place of note is

Mont de Marson, seated on the side of a hill, which is tolerably well built, having several good streets. It affords a very extensive and picturesque view of the adjacent country.

GERS,

To the south-east of Landes, extends about

80 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. The chief towns are,

1. *Auch*, the capital, which lies on the summit and declivity of a very steep hill. Through the vale below runs the river Gers. A few years ago it was an insignificant place; but now the buildings are modern and elegant, and the streets clean and well paved. In the centre of the town stands the cathedral, which is one of the most magnificent in France, both as to the construction and the internal decorations.

2. *Miranda*, a small town, the inhabitants of which carry on a great trade in down, wool, feathers, and quills.

ARRIEGE,

Situated in one of the most southern parts of this empire, next to the Pyrenean Mountains, is of a triangular form, and about 60 miles in extent at each of the angles. The chief places are,

1. *Foix*, an ancient, and formerly independent, town, seated on the river Arriege, which rises in the Pyrenees, and gives name to the department. Here is a manufactory of coarse woollen cloths, and some copper-works. Its population is estimated at about 3500 souls.

2. *Pamiers*, a neat town, seated on the Arriege, 17 miles N.N.W. of Foix. It is well built, and has a considerable trade, particularly with Toulouse.

UPPER PYRENEES,

Situated to the westward of the preceding, though, in a great measure, a continued range of mountains, yet the valleys are extremely fertile, producing oranges, olives, excellent wheat, and wines. It extends about 50 miles in length, and 36 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Tarbes*, a small town, chiefly consisting of one long street of indifferently-built houses, lying along the banks of the river Adour. It has some manufactures, particularly of leather, which is allowed to be the best in France.

2. *Lourde*, a market-town, 10 miles S.W. of Tarbes, famous for its ancient castle, situated on a high rock, which, before the introduction of gunpowder, was impregnable.

LOWER PYRENEES,

Situated to the west of the last-mentioned, is a maritime province. Towards the south, where it borders on the Pyrenees, it is mountainous and barren; but the other parts are fertile and pleasant. It is nearly 80 miles long, and 50 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Pau**, a large, ill-built town, formerly the residence

* The French general, Bernadotte, who, since the commencement of this work, has been elected crown prince and successor to the throne of Sweden, at a meeting of the states of that country, in July 1810, was born in this town, January 27, 1763.

residence of the kings of Navarre, with manufactures of cloth, linen, &c. It has several convents, an university, and an academy of sciences. The hams cured here are in great estimation.

2. *Bayonne*, a large city near the sea, 15 miles from the borders of Spain to the north, and 360 from Paris. Being one of the keys of the kingdom on the Spanish side, it is strongly fortified, and has a citadel, with two forts, and other works. Bayonne is most agreeably situated at the conflux of two rivers, the Adour and the Nive, which form a commodious harbour. Provisions are always abundant here; and it is noted for its hams and chocolate. Large masts are brought hither from the Pyrenees, and exported to all parts.

3. *St. Jean de Luz*, a small town, situated 15 miles from Bayonne, over which is a bridge, joining it to the village of Sibour, with a harbour for fishing boats, belonging to both these places. It is the last town in France toward Spain.

4. *St. Jean-Pied-de-Port*, a considerable town, situated on the Nive, three miles from the borders of Spain, and 24 from Bayonne. It is well fortified; and has a castle commanding the pass or defile of the mountains, which in this country are called *ports*.

EASTERN PYRENEES,

The most southern department in France, entirely comprises the ancient province of Rousillon. It extends nearly 50 miles in length, and 36 in breadth. The heat here, in summer, is intense; but the soil is fruitful in corn, wine, oil, millet, oranges, &c. The ground is ploughed by mules; and a great deal of oil, with some corn, millet, and wool, are exported from the country. It belonged formerly to Spain; but was yielded for ever to France by the treaty of the Pyrenees, in 1659. The only town of note is

Perpignan, the capital, a considerable town, situated on the river Tet, about three miles from the Mediterranean. Though not large, yet it is populous, well built, and strongly fortified, having a handsome bridge of one arch over the river.

UPPER GARONNE,

Which is so denominated from a river of the same appellation, which runs its whole length, is situated to the south-west of Gers; and is about 100 miles long, but no where more than 40 broad. The chief town is

Toulouse, the capital, an ancient city, seated on the river Garonne, 356 miles S.W. of Paris. It

was anciently a celebrated Roman station, and afterwards the capital of the Visigoths. At present it may not be inaptly compared to a vast labyrinth, composed of streets so crooked, narrow, and winding, that it almost requires a clue to conduct a stranger through them. Here are no squares or public places adorned with elegant buildings, as at Nantes or Bourdeaux, though it equals this last city in size, but not in population, as the number of its inhabitants does not exceed 60,000. The cathedral is by no means a splendid specimen of architecture. It was erected by Raymond VI. about 1200. Toulouse has some inland commerce by means of the famous canal cut to join the Atlantic and Mediterranean seas, which opens into the Garonne just above this city, and conveys all the articles of trade from Certe to Bourdeaux. But this advantageous situation has not been so beneficial as might have been expected; though from recent information, it appears that considerable exertions have of late been making to improve this city, where elegant quays have been erected, adorned with convenient warehouses, from whence it may be inferred that, in time of peace, this will become a great commercial city.

TARNE,

Which is so denominated from the river Tarne, that crosses it from east to west, and nearly divides it into two equal parts. It is upwards of 60 miles long, and 40 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Alby*, an ancient town, seated on the river Tarne, 42 miles N.E. of Toulouse. It is well built, and contains several fine structures; and the circumjacent country is beautiful and picturesque, producing abundance of wine, grain, and oil. The Albigenes, in church history, were so called from their making their first appearance in this town, where, as early as the eleventh century, they disputed the authority of the pope, for which they suffered the most dreadful persecution.

2. *Castres*, a considerable town, seated on the Agout, 25 miles S.S.W. of Alby. It has manufactures of linen and stuffs, and a considerable trade in honey and wax.

AUDE,

So denominated from a river of a similar name, which rises among the Pyrenean mountains, and, after crossing this department, falls into the Mediterranean. It is nearly 50 miles square. The chief towns are,

By this political manœuvre the emperor Napoleon has, at length, gained a firm footing in the north of Europe, which ultimately may be productive of the most eventful consequences.

1. Carcassonne,

1. *Carcassonne*, which consists of two distinct cities, separated by the little river Aude, but united by a fine stone bridge. The most ancient of these, called *La Haute Ville*, stands on the summit of a hill; the lower town, which is in the plain, is the largest, being modern and well built: both are surrounded with Gothic walls, battlements, and turrets, which are in the most perfect preservation. Here are some extensive silk manufactures.

2. *Limoux*, a commercial town on the river Aude, 17 miles S.W. of Carcassonne. Though but indifferently built, it has extensive manufactures of silk and cloth.

3. *Narbonne*, which pretends to the most remote antiquity: it is now dwindled into a solitary town, containing scarcely 8000 inhabitants. No vestiges of Roman magnificence remain, except some inscriptions in different parts of the city; but the cathedral is a venerable edifice, remarkable for its noble choir.

HERAULT,

Seated to the north-east of Aude, is so denominated from a river of the same name, which crosses it from north to south, and falls into the gulf of Lyons. The climate is salubrious and wholesome; but, in summer, it would be remarkably hot, were it not that, from ten in the morning till five in the evening, the wind constantly blows from the sea, and cools the air. This department is nearly 60 miles long, and 30 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Montpellier*, a large, rich, and handsome city, pleasantly situated near the river Lez, five miles from the Mediterranean. It has many fine houses, and several stately edifices; but the streets are very narrow. Twenty years ago this place was much resorted to by people who laboured under disorders of the lungs, whom the reputed clearness of its atmosphere, and fame of its physicians, allured hither in hopes of a cure: but modern travellers inform us, that the climate of this city and its vicinity have undergone great changes, for the worse, of late years, for which no satisfactory reason has yet been assigned. Besides its university and schools of medicine, here is an academy of sciences.

2. *Beziers*, an opulent and considerable town, containing above 20,000 inhabitants, situated on an eminence in a delightful country. Near it are six sluices of the grand canal, by which it carries on a great trade with Toulouse and Bourdeaux.

GARD,

To the north-east of the before-mentioned, is, like most of the other departments, so termed from a small river which passes through it, and

falls into the Rhone. It is upwards of 60 miles in length, and nearly of a similar breadth where widest; but it is of very different widths. The chief places are,

1. *Nismes*, an ancient, large, and populous town, containing many monuments of antiquity. The delightful walk, called the *Esplanade*, is without the city. Here are several manufactures, a considerable trade in cloth and silk, an academy of belles lettres, a citadel of four bastions, and about 40,000 inhabitants, about 73 of which are Protestants. The hills in the neighbourhood are covered with vines.

2. *Alais*, a large town, seated near the river Garde, 20 miles N.W. of Nismes. It contains about 10,000 inhabitants, who export annually upwards of 1,000,000 lbs. of raw silk.

LOZERE,

So denominated from the mountains of Lozere, included in this department, is situated to the north-west of Gard, and extends about 50 miles long and 35 broad. The chief and only place of note is

Mende, a populous town, seated on the river Lol, 210 miles S. of Paris. The houses are well built, and the streets spacious, and adorned with fountains. Here is an ancient cathedral, the steeple belonging to which is a curious specimen of Gothic architecture. This town has manufactures of serges and other woollen stuffs.

ARDECHE,

Situated to the north-east of the preceding, takes its name from the small river Ardecche. It is about 60 miles long, and 40 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Privas*, a small town, seated near the confluence of four rivers, 200 miles S.W. of Paris. It is neatly built, and contains several handsome edifices: the trade is chiefly in wines and coarse woollen cloths.

2. *Viviers*, a considerable town, seated among the rocks and precipices, near the river Rhone. The cathedral, which is a fine Gothic structure, is situated on the top of one of these rocks, from the steeple of which is a beautiful view of the circumjacent country.

UPPER LOIRE,

Situated to the north of Ardecche, is nearly of a triangular shape, extending nearly 50 miles at each angle. The chief places are,

1. *Le Puy*, the capital, a populous town, seated on the Loire, partly on the side of a hill, and partly in a plain. It is well built; and has extensive manufactures of silk and worsted goods.

2. *Brioude*,

2. *Brioude*, a neat town seated on the Allier, 30 miles N.W. of Le Puy. It is tolerably well built, and has some good houses: the bridge over the river is modern, though only of one arch, which is 100 feet in diameter.

MOUTHS OF THE RHONE,

So denominated because it comprises the different estuaries of that famous river, is situated south-west of Gard. It extends about 60 miles in length, and 50 in breadth, where broadest. The chief places are,

1. *Aix*, an ancient and populous city, so called, since the time of the Romans, from its hot-baths. It has a stately cathedral, a public library, an university, two colleges, an academy of fine arts, fountains, a most beautiful walk called Le Concorde Orbitesle, a town-house, and fine palace. It is situated in a fertile valley, particularly famous for its olives, which yield excellent oil. This is the see of an archbishop, who has a handsome palace here.

2. *Marseilles*, a very ancient, large, and populous city, situated on the coast of the Mediterranean, where it has a safe and spacious harbour, 25 miles south from Aix. Almost all the trade that is carried on by the merchants of the south of France, in a manner, centres here, where there is a fine arsenal, a dock for building gallies, an observatory, an academy of the fine arts, and several churches. The city is divided into the Old and New; the former of which is meanly built, with narrow, dirty, and uneven streets; but the latter is very handsome, and contains a fine walk. Opposite to the harbour are three small islands. Great quantities of tar and pitch are made in this neighbourhood. In beauty, this city has little to boast; but much in respect to its situation for commerce, and the antiquity of its foundation, which is said to have been laid in the time of Tarquinius Priscus. The streets are crowded with people of different nations, a most extensive trade being carried on with the Levant. The manufactures of this town are various and flourishing, of which those of soap and wax candles are the chief; though others, such as of stuffs in imitation of those that come from the Indies, of silk stockings, porcelain, tapestry, hats, &c. are far from being inconsiderable objects of trade. The church of St. Victor contains a great number of antiquities. Among its curiosities they number St. Andrew's cross, which is almost entire, and preserved with a religious veneration. The census of 1805 gives the population of Marseilles at 111,130 souls. It is 362 miles S.S.E. of Paris.

LOWER ALPS,

Seated to the north-east of the preceding, is

so termed from its vicinity to the celebrated mountains of that name. It is about eighty miles long, and fifty broad. The chief places are,

1. *Digne*, a small town, seated on the river Blaine, 250 S.W. of Paris. It is neatly built, and has some good hotels, which are generally full of company, who resort hither for the benefit of a celebrated hot-bath in this neighbourhood.

2. *Castellane*, a considerable town, seated among high mountains, near the foot of which runs the river Verdun. It has manufactures of cloth and silk; and a great trade in wine, corn, and other produce.

VAR,

Situated to the S.S.W. of the last-mentioned, extends about 50 miles in length, and nearly a similar breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Toulon*, a large city, situated on the Mediterranean, with a fine port, 30 miles E. from Marseilles, and about 475 from Paris. Louis XIV. rendered this city, from a pitiful village, a seaport of great importance. It is divided into the Old Quarter and New Quarter. The first, which is very ill-built, contains nothing remarkable but the town-house, the gate of which is surrounded by a balcony. The new quarter, which forms as it were a second city, contains, besides the magnificent works of Louis XIV. many good houses, among which that of the public seminary is, beyond comparison, the grandest. The old and new harbours lie contiguous; and, by means of a canal, ships pass from one to the other; both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour, the entrance into which from the sea is so narrow, that two ships cannot go into it abreast. Both the town and the harbour are strongly fortified. On two sides of the former are high hills, at a very small distance, of which that of St. Anne, on the north-east, perfectly commands it. This city contains several courts, particularly an admiralty office, many convents, an arsenal well furnished, a foundry, magazines, and several extensive manufactures of woollen cloths, &c.

2. *Hieres*, a handsome town, 15 miles to the east from Toulon, famous for the best salt and the finest fruit in France; it contains some churches and convents, and gives name to three islands in the neighbouring sea.

3. *Frejus*, an ancient town, seated on the Argent, 60 miles E. of Aix, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ from the sea. It contains many remains of antiquity, particularly an aqueduct and an amphitheatre. The town is well fortified, and has several convents. Its harbour is now choked up with sand.

VAUCLUSE, OR LE COMTAT,

A small department, situated to the north of that of the Mouths of the Rhone. Its modern name is derived from one of the finest mineral springs in Europe; but it formerly comprised the territory of Avignon, which was ceded by the different French monarchs to the popes, who governed the country in their absence by a legate. It extends about 50 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Avignon*, a large city, situated at the conflux of the Rhone and Sorgue, seven miles from Arles to the north, and 15 from Aix to the north-west. Here is a stone bridge over the Rhone, a very handsome college, and an university, founded in the year 1303. No less than seven popes resided here successively, from the year 1307 to 1377. In the church of the Franciscans is the tomb of the beautiful and learned Laura, so much admired and celebrated by Petrarch. The grave having been opened in the time of Francis I. a leaden box was found in it, containing a medal, with a copy of verses written on parchment by Petrarch, in praise of his mistress. The Jews enjoy the free exercise of their religion in this city.

2. *Orange*, situated on the little river Maine, in a beautiful plain, about three miles from the Rhone, and fifteen from Avignon. It was, until the revolution, the see of a bishop. Here are several remains of Roman magnificence, particularly a fine triumphal arch, and an amphitheatre.

3. *Carpentras*, a large town, seated on the river Auson, 17 miles N.E. of Avignon. It has extensive manufactures of linen and woollen articles, and some of silk. The houses are well built, the streets regular and spacious; and the inhabitants about 10,000.

MONT BLANC.

The territory composing this department was, for a great period, known in Europe as the duchy of Savoy. In 1792 it was overrun by the French, whom the inhabitants received with open arms; soon after which it was decreed by the convention, that it should be a new department of the French republic, with the above denomination, derived from the immense mountain of that name, which forms its eastern boundary. It extends 83 miles in length, and 65 in breadth. The surface is hilly, and the climate cold; but the soil is fertile and productive, and even the hills feed immense herds of black cattle. The chief towns are,

1. *Chambery*, a considerable town, seated on an eminence surrounded by mountains, about

seven miles from the Rhone. It is populous and well built; and would have spacious streets, if the houses in general were not built with piazzas, which render them dark and gloomy, though commodious for foot-passengers in rainy weather. The suburbs are large, and composed of modern buildings. The principal manufactures are of silk and cotton goods, the admixture of which form, at the present day, some of the most fashionable dresses of our females, from hence called *chamberys*.

2. *Annecey*, a neat town, seated on the river Seaar, 27 miles N.E. of Chambery. It is well built, but not of large extent: the manufactures are similar to those of Chambery.

MARITIME ALPS,

A small department, of a triangular form, situated to the north-east of Var. It comprises what formerly was called the county of Nice, and is very mountainous and rugged; but contains several fertile valleys. The chief and only place of note is

Nice, an ancient sea-port, seated at the mouth of the river Pegliou, 400 miles S.E. of Paris. It is very agreeably built on the side of a hill, or rather rock, and contains some good buildings; but the houses in general are ancient. Before the year 1792, this city and the circumjacent country were under the protection of the king of Sardinia, but at that time were conquered by the French, and annexed to the then republic of France, under its present form.

LEMAN.

This department, which is composed of the ancient republic of Geneva, is situated to the south of the lake of Geneva. The climate is mild and salubrious, and the soil fertile. Its length is about 60 miles, and its greatest width 35, though it varies greatly. The only place of note is

Geneva, a large and ancient city, finely seated at the S.W. extremity of the lake of the same name; and is divided by the Rhone (which passes through the lake) into two unequal parts. It lies partly in a plain, on the borders of the lake, and partly on a gentle ascent; but the houses are irregular and lofty, most of them having piazzas and arcades in front, which are raised even to the upper stories. These give a gloomy appearance to the streets; but they protect the inhabitants from the sun and rain. It contains about 24,000 inhabitants, who are, in general, a well-informed, intelligent people. "It is not uncommon," says Dr. Moore, "to find mechanics, in the intervals of labour, amusing themselves with the works of Locke, Montesquieu,

quieu, Newton, and other similar productions." They are ingenious artists, and carry on extensive manufactures. Calvin, when driven from France, introduced the reformed religion here in 1536.

THE NETHERLANDS.

These countries, which, in their ancient and most extensive sense, comprehended the whole of what has lately been called the kingdom of Holland, together with the other territories distinguished by the name of the NETHERLANDS, or Low Countries, have recently been seized by the mighty power of all-grasping France, added to its empire, and now form an integral part of that government. "They, in general," says Pinkerton, "were anciently known by the name of Belgic Gaul, the chief inhabitants of this part being the Menapii, the Tungri, the Nervii, and the Morini. After the irruption of the Franks, this country formed part of Neustria, or the new kingdom (the ancient kingdom of the Franks being on the east of the Rhine), partly belonging to the province of Flandria, and partly to that of Lotharingia, or Lower Lorrain. In the middle of the ninth century arose the powerful house of the earls of Flanders; and the counts of Hainault commenced about the same epoch. The dukes of Lower Lorrain and Brabant were little known till the end of the tenth century. These and other great inheritances gradually fell under the power of the dukes of Burgundy, who in the 15th century enjoyed dominions worthy of the regal title. With the heiress of Burgundy the Netherlands passed, by marriage, to the house of Austria, by whom the country, formerly divided into seventeen provinces, was formed into a circle of the German empire, by the name of the circle of Belgium, or Burgundy; they also obtained the general name of the Netherlands, or Low Countries, from their low situation with respect to Germany.

That part of these provinces which is now usually called the Netherlands, or Belgium, is bounded on the north by Holland; on the east by the part of Germany lately annexed to France; on the south by the French departments of the Moselle, Ardennes, and the North; and on the west by the North or English Sea. The length, computed from the eastern limit of Luxemburg to Ostend on the ocean, may be about 180 British miles; and about 120 in breadth, from the northern boundary of Austrian Brabant to the most southern limit of Hainault. The extent is computed at 10,572 square miles, with an average of 285 souls to each.

These countries, before the French revolution,

were divided between the Dutch, the Austrians, and the French. Austria possessed the whole of the provinces of Antwerp, Malines, and Namur; and the French the whole of those of Artois and Cambresis. Brabant and Limburg were possessed partly by Austria, and partly by Holland; and Hainault and Luxemburg were, in like manner, divided between Austria and France. The province of Flanders was shared between all these three powers, under the names of Austrian, Dutch, and French Flanders. The whole of these ten provinces is now incorporated with France, and divided into nine departments, as given in the table at the beginning of this chapter.

LYS,

A maritime country, situated to the north-east of the department of the North, is but of small dimensions, extending about 40 miles long, and nearly of a similar breadth. The chief towns are,

1. *Bruges*, the capital, an ancient city, formerly the English staple for wool, and the centre of communication between the Italian and the Hanseatic merchants; the former bringing the produce of India hither, which they exchanged for the commodities of the north. It was then the greatest trading town in Europe, and every commercial nation had a consul here; but, in the 16th century, the civil wars occasioned by the tyranny of Philip II. drove the trade first to Antwerp, and afterwards to Amsterdam. Bruges, therefore, is not now near so populous or extensive as formerly; though it is still a considerable town, and has communication, by canals, with Ostend, Ghent, Sleugs, Nieuport, Furness, Ypres, and Dunkirk. It is 150 miles N.E. of Paris.

2. *Ostend*, a large and populous sea-port, famous for the long siege it sustained against the Spaniards, from the beginning of July to the end of September, 1604, when it surrendered, by an honourable capitulation, to the celebrated Marquis Spinola. The Spaniards lost nearly 80,000 men before this place; although, when first invested, it was not expected to hold out a fortnight. It is seated on a marshy soil, near a number of canals, and nearly surrounded by two of the largest of them, 12 miles west of Bruges. Ships of the largest burden enter these canals with the tide. This town is indifferently built, upon the Dutch plan, the streets being intersected by canals. It contains about 14,000 inhabitants.

3. *Ypres*, a large manufacturing town, seated on the river Ypre, 28 miles S.W. of Bruges. It anciently was very extensive, having one of the largest markets for fine linens and woollens in all Europe;

Europe; so that about the year 1242, the number of inhabitants (for the most part weavers) was upwards of 200,000. By the severity of the duke of Alva, the governor of these provinces, the principal manufacturers fled to England, from which circumstance the trade greatly declined. They still, however, have some remains of it; and there is an annual fair held in Lent, which is well frequented. The houses of this town are, for the most part, old and irregular, being built with the gable ends towards the great thoroughfares. The inhabitants do not exceed 8000.

SCHELDT.

Situated to the N.W. of the preceding, is so denominated from its maritime situation, near the estuary of that river. It is about 60 miles in length from east to west, and 40 in breadth from north to south. The chief places are,

1. *Ghent*, a very ancient city, the capital of the *ci-devant* Austrian Flanders, seated on the Scheldt, near its confluence with several smaller streams. It contains six parish-churches, besides a venerable cathedral, several religious houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants; though it is by no means populous in proportion to its extent, which is so great that the emperor Charles V. is stated to have said to Francis I. king of France, "I have a *glove* (the French name for glove being *gant*) in which I can put your whole city of Paris." Ghent is so intersected by canals, that it may be said to be divided into 26 islands, which are united by upwards of 300 bridges. The streets are wide, and of considerable length; and in the centre is a large square, where a regular market is held. The walls are said to be ten miles in compass; but a great space within them is at present laid out in gardens and orchards.

2. *Sluys*, or, as it is called by the French, *La Ecluse*, formerly a very considerable sea-port, situated opposite the island of Cadsand, with a harbour capable of receiving 500 vessels, but which is now nearly choked up with sand. It derives its name from the sluices near the town, by which the circumjacent country, to a considerable extent, may be inundated in a short time.

JEMAPPE,

To the south of the last-mentioned, is so denominated from a village of the same name, near which the French obtained a complete victory over the Austrians, November 5, 1792. It extends about 70 miles in length, and 35 in breadth. The chief places are,

1. *Mons*, an ancient trading town, seated on

an ascent, in a marshy country, at the confluence of the rivers Haine and Frioude, 130 miles N.E. of Paris. It has manufactures of says, grograms, &c. and a good trade. It is tolerably well built, and strongly fortified; but has been repeatedly taken and re-taken in the wars between France and Germany.

2. *Tournay*, one of the most ancient cities in Europe, having been the capital of the ancient Belgic Gauls. It is at present a considerable place, and has several fine manufactures, being particularly famous for its stockings. It is extremely well fortified, and is seated on the river Scheldt, which divides it into two parts, united by a bridge, 17 miles N.W. of Mons.

DEUX NETHES,

Situated to the east of the department of the Scheldt, is about 63 miles long, and 32 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Antwerp*, a large, rich, and populous city, advantageously situated on the river Scheldt, where it is 410 yards wide, though above the city it suddenly narrows to less than 100. Two hundred and fifty years ago, this city was the first commercial place in Europe; but it soon afterwards declined, and was almost annihilated in 1648, when, by the treaty of Munster, between Spain and the Seven United Provinces, the navigation of the Scheldt was shut to large ships; for, soon afterwards, the Dutch built forts on the left banks of the river, which hindered all vessels from coming up, except such as paid the customs. These measures, together with the sinking of large ships laden with stones in the principal channels of the river, caused the trade to be removed from hence to Amsterdam, which, till this period, was an inconsiderable place. Its trade began to revive when the Netherlands became a part of France. In the year 1800 sixty-one vessels arrived from Emden, Altona, and Hamburg. In 1801 there were 147 from the same ports, with some Americans. In 1802 there were 149; and the commercial connections began to be more extensive; for some were from the Baltic, the Mediterranean, and even from the West Indies; the chief imports being coffee, sugar, cotton, and cotton cloths, hides, dyeing-woods, tea, indigo, &c. Next year the arrivals were 181; some from Spain. In 1804 there were 162, among which were many Americans. In 1805, previous to the 18th of July, there had arrived no less than 354, two being from Canton, and one from Batavia; the number of those under the Prussian flag was the greatest, and followed by the Americans. A report had been spread that the navigation of the Scheldt was impeded, but it was found to be fabulous; and a capital chart has

recently been published by the French government, with numerous and exact soundings. A canal has been ordered, which will join the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt; and new docks have been constructed, from which several large ships of the line have very recently been launched, together with a magnificent quay. On the north of the city is a grand dock-yard, belonging to Messrs. Danet and company. The late British expedition to the Scheldt, added to the late rigorous system of blockade, and our retaliative orders in council, must, however, have greatly injured the trade of this city, the streets of which are large and regular, in number 212, besides 22 public squares. The public buildings are very handsome, and at least 200 in number: the exchange cost 300,000 crowns, from a model of which Sir Thomas Gresham built the Royal Exchange of London. The town-house is a grand piece of architecture, and stands in the great market-place. The house of the Hanse towns, built for the accommodation of the eastern merchants from the Baltic, is a square building of stone. In the middle story, which has a gallery quite round the square, there are 500 lodging-rooms: the cellars serve for stables. Antwerp stands 200 miles N.E. of Paris; and, according to the census of 1805, contained 61,500 inhabitants.

2. *Mechlin*, or *Malines*, an ancient town, seated on the river Dyle, 17 miles S.W. of Antwerp. It consists of several small islands, made by artificial canals, over which are a great many bridges. Here is a very large house, in which are brought up 800 or 1000 poor girls; and a great foundry for ordnance of all kinds. It is famous for its manufactures of bed-quilts and fine lace. Its population exceeds 16,000 souls.

DYLE,

Situated to the south-west of the preceding, is so denominated from a river of the same name. It is about 50 miles long, and 35 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Brussels*, or *Bruxels*, a large and ancient city, seated partly on an eminence, and partly in a plain, on the river Sennue, 22 miles S. of Antwerp. It is very extensive, being not less than seven miles in circuit. The streets are spacious, the houses pretty high; and here are seven spacious squares, which are chiefly used as market-places; the largest is elegant and beautiful. The public buildings are sumptuous; and here are numerous fountains. The fivage, or the lower part of the city, is built much after the Dutch manner, being cut into canals for the convenience of shipping, for which a large canal has been cut from the Scheldt, 15 miles distant, which cost

this city 1,800,000 dollars; and by which *trech-schuyts*, or passage-boats, are towed between Brussels and Antwerp. This city is celebrated for its lace, camlets, and tapestry. Two hundred years ago it contained upwards of 100,000 inhabitants; but now they do not exceed 60,000.

2. *Louvain*, or *Loeven*, formerly a large city, seated on the river Dyle, 12 miles N.N.W. of Antwerp. It is of great extent within the walls; but several of the houses are in ruins, and the scite of a vast number of others is now converted into gardens, fields, and orchards. Several of the public buildings remain, which evince its former consequence: as a proof of which it is asserted that at one time it contained 150,000 clothiers; but it is now greatly decayed, being chiefly remarkable for its excellent beer, and its celebrated university, which consists of sixty small colleges, much admired for their neatness.

LOWER MEUSE,

This department, which comprehends what, till recently, was called the duchy of Guelderland, is situated north-east of the preceding; and extends nearly 50 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The only place of note is

Maestricht, a large, ancient town, seated on the river Maese, 46 miles E. of Brussels. It is tolerably well built: and the town-house and most of the public edifices are handsome. It is so strongly defended by bastions, horn-works, redoubts, &c. as to be justly deemed one of the best fortified places in Europe. Near it are large stone quarries, in which are subterraneous avenues of great extent. This town contains about 17,000 inhabitants.

OURTHE,

Which is chiefly comprised of the ancient duchies of Liege and Lemburg, is situated to the S.S.W. of the last-mentioned. Its greatest length is about 45 miles, and its breadth 30. The chief places are,

1. *Liege*, a large, rich, and populous city, which, before its annexation to France, was the capital of a celebrated bishopric bearing its name. It is seated on the river Maese, in a valley surrounded by hills, 15 miles S.W. of Maestricht, where the river divides itself into three branches, which, after passing through the streets under several bridges, unite again. This city is about four miles in circumference; and contains 150 streets, 15 gates, and 10 suburbs. The public structures are very numerous; and by the sides of the river are several fine walks: here is a famous university. Liege is said to contain a population of 30,000 souls.

2. *Limburg*, famous for its manufactures of fine

fine cloth, and its excellent cheese. It is beautifully situated on an agreeable mountain, near the river Wese, 20 miles E.S.E. of Liege; and near it are many quarries of different kinds of marble. The walks round the town are very romantic, being surrounded by precipices, mountains, and rocks.

SAMBRE AND MEUSE,

Situated W.S.W. of the preceding, is mostly comprised of the ancient country of Namur. It is about 50 miles long, and nearly of a similar width where broadest. The only place of note is

Namur, an ancient city, said to take its name from an ancient idol called *Nam*, supposed to be Neptune. It is seated at the confluence of the Maese and Sambre, 25 miles S.W. of Liege. It is tolerably well built, having several spacious streets; but it has suffered very severely from having been frequently besieged. The number of its inhabitants are estimated at about 16,000.

FORETS,

Comprised almost entirely of the recent duchy of Luxemburg. It is situated to the south of the preceding, and extends about 70 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. The cities are numerous; but the only place of note is

Luxemburg, an ancient city, seated on the river *Allitz*, which passes through it, and divides it into the Upper and Lower Towns, the former almost surrounded with rocks, but the latter seated in a plain. This city is but of small extent; but it is extremely well fortified both by nature and art, and has undergone several very remarkable sieges. It contains about 10,000 souls.

ROER.

This department, together with the three following, are composed of that part of the German empire which was situated on the right bank of the Rhine, but which was ceded to France by the treaty of Luneville, and annexed to its empire. The department of Roer is composed of the late archbishopric of Cologne, and duchy of Juliers; and is about 45 miles long, and 35 broad. The chief places are;

1. *Aix-la-Chapelle*, a large, and, till lately, free and imperial city, seated on the river *Ruhr*. It contains thirty parish-churches, and a very spacious market-place; and was known to the Romans by the name of *Aquæ Cranii*. It was destroyed by the Huns in 451; but repaired, beautified, and enlarged by Charlemagne, who made it the capital of his empire. He lies interred in the church of *Notre Dame*, where his sword and belt are kept to this day.

2. *Cologne*, an ancient city, seated on the west bank of the Rhine, by means of which it trades upwards with the interior of Germany and Switzerland, and downwards, by large vessels, with the Netherlands and Holland. It is built in the form of a crescent, with 34 gates, and is fortified in the ancient manner; the streets, however, except the principal ones, are narrow, dirty, and ill-paved, and the houses dark and thinly inhabited. Here are ten collegiate and 49 parish churches, four abbeys, 56 convents, 16 hospitals, and 50 chapels. Opposite to Cologne, on the other side of the Rhine, is the village of *Dentz*, between which and that city there is a bridge of boats, which renders the place a considerable thoroughfare.

RHINE AND MOSELLE,

Situated to the south-east of Roer, is chiefly comprised of the late archbishopric of Treves. It is about 50 miles long, and 45 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Coblentz*, an ancient town, seated at the confluence of the Rhine and Moselle, with a bridge of boats over the former, and a stone bridge over the latter, which renders this town a great thoroughfare. It is indifferently built, and has several churches. The trade is very considerable.

2. *Bonne*, a handsome town, seated also on the west side of the Rhine, 14 miles N.N.W. of Coblentz. The houses are well built, and the streets spacious and beautiful. The fortifications are in good repair.

SARRE,

To the south-west of the preceding, chiefly comprises the late duchy of Deux Ponts, and the archbishopric of Treves. It is upwards of 80 miles long, and 40 broad. The towns are numerous, but unimportant; the only one deserving notice is

Treves, or *Triers*, an ancient city, seated between two mountains, on the river Moselle, over which it has a fine stone bridge. It has three colleges, a cathedral, three collegiate and five parish churches, and also 13 monasteries and nunneries. It has suffered greatly during the late and present wars, and is now neither handsome nor populous. It was the capital of all Gaul, while this country was a Roman province; and was then, and still continues, famous for its excellent wines.

MONT TONNERE,

So denominated from a small eminence situated near the centre of this department, which is bounded on the north and east by the Rhine, and comprises a great part of the late archbishopric of Mentz,

Mentz, and several other small territories. It is about 70 miles long, and 35 broad. The chief places are,

1. *Mentz*, or *Mayence*, a large and ancient city, 210 miles east of Paris, seated on the Rhine, near its confluence with the Maine, over the former of which it has a bridge of boats. Notwithstanding its fine situation, it is built in an irregular manner, with narrow streets and old fashioned houses, many of which, and several of the churches and public buildings, are now in ruins, having been destroyed, or greatly injured, during the late sieges. The cathedral is a gloomy edifice. The inhabitants do not exceed 25,000.

2. *Worms*, an ancient city, recently the capital of the bishopric of the same name, 20 miles south of Mentz. It is seated on the Rhine, and has some elegant public edifices; but, in general, the houses are low, and the streets narrow. It has some trade in wines and other produce.

3. *Spire*, an ancient city, capital of the late bishopric of Spire, seated on the Rhine, over which there is a bridge of boats, 15 miles south of Worms. It is chiefly remarkable for a celebrated diet held here, where the reformers first obtained the name of Protestants.

PIEDMONT.

This country, which, till very recently, was a principality of Italy, and, before the French revolution, subject to the king of Sardinia, was by the treaty of Luneville acknowledged as a part of the kingdom of Italy; but has since been annexed to the French empire, being subdivided into the six following departments.

IVREA, OR DOIRE,

Bounded on the north by Switzerland, and on the west by the ancient duchy of Savoy, now forming the department of Mont Blanc. It is about 50 miles square. The chief places are,

1. *Ivrea*, a neat town, seated on the Doria river, 20 miles N. of Turin. It contains, besides the cathedral, which is a stately edifice, three parish churches, and several religious houses; and is defended by a castle and two other fortresses.

2. *Aoste*, a small town seated in a valley at the foot of the Alps, on the river Doria, 50 miles N.W. of Turin. It is built in a straggling manner; and the inhabitants, who are a simple people, are afflicted with the swollen throat, so common in the republic of the Valais, and other parts of Switzerland.

MARENGO.

This department is so denominated in commemoration of a great victory obtained by Napoleon,

emperor of the French (then first consul), over the Austrian general Mena, near a village of the same name, at a short distance from Alexandria. Its extent has not been accurately ascertained. The only place of note is

Alexandria, or *Alessandria*, a considerable town seated on the river Tanaro, 37 miles E.S.E. of Turin. It is pretty well built, and has some manufactures of silk and woollen goods, and a strong citadel, well defended with cannon and fortifications.

PO,

1. *Turin*, the capital of all Piedmont, charmingly situated south of Ivrea, is so called from the large river of the same name which crosses it from east to west. Its exact dimensions have not yet been given. The chief towns are, seated in a fine plain, at the confluence of the rivers Doria and Po, 350 miles S.E. of Paris. The houses are well built, upon a uniform plan, and the streets are clean, straight, and generally terminate in some agreeable object: the Strada de Po is one of the finest in Europe, leading to the late royal palace of the kings of Sardinia. It is adorned with piazzas that are at once both beautiful and convenient. Here are likewise several fine squares, hotels, a superb opera-house, an arsenal, and an university, which is one of the finest buildings in the city. The late royal palace is a most sumptuous fabric: it consists of two magnificent edifices, joined together by a gallery, adorned with pictures, statues, and antiquities of great value. The fortifications of Turin are respectable, and kept in good repair; and there are fine walks on the ramparts, which require two hours to go round them. Here are also fine gardens, and public walks on the banks of the Po; and an hospital called La Charité, which is capable of holding 3000 poor persons. The chief trade of this place, and the circumjacent country, is in thrown silk. Turin is the see of an archbishop, contains 110 churches and chapels, and about 60,000 inhabitants. It is supplied with water by an aqueduct from the river Doria into a large reservoir, and is afterwards distributed throughout every street.

2. *Susa*, or *Susa*, anciently *Segusium*, an old town, seated on the river Dora Riparia, 25 miles N.N.W. of Turin. It has been called the key of Italy, because it was one of the principal passes between the two countries. Here is a rich convent, called the abbey of St. Just, and a triumphal arch erected to the honour of Augustus Cæsar. The town is at present but small and insignificant.

SESIA,

Situated to the north-west of the preceding, is but

but a small department, being so denominated from a river of the same name, which rises in the Alps, and falls into the Po. It is 35 miles long, and 25 broad. The only place of note is

Vergueil, or *Verue*, an ancient town, seated on a hill near the river Po. It is a small place, but neatly built, the streets being straight and regular: the old town was reduced to a heap of ruins by a six months' siege in 1705. It has some trade in silk and fruit.

STURA.

This department is situated on the south-west of the late duchy of Piedmont; and is bounded on the south by the Maritime Alps and Liguria. It is 55 miles in length, and nearly of a similar width. The chief places are,

1. *Coni*, an ancient town, seated on the river Stura, which gives name to the department, 21 miles south of Turin. It is strongly fortified, and has withstood several severe sieges. The houses are tolerably well built; but here is nothing worthy particular notice.

2. *Mondovi*, a considerable town, with a venerable cathedral, and five other churches. It is seated on a mountain near the river Elero, 30 miles south of Turin. It contains an university, twelve convents, and about 10,000 inhabitants. The date of the foundation of the town is marked on a stone in the cathedral, 1232.

TANARO,

Situated north-east of the preceding, is so denominated from the river Tanaro, which passes through it from east to west. It is about 30 miles long, and nearly as many broad. The towns are numerous, but inconsiderable.

Asti, the capital, seated on the Tanaro, 24 miles S. E. of Turin, is a small, neat town, strongly fortified both by nature and art; but it contains nothing remarkable.

LIGURIA.

This territory comprehends the ancient republic of Genoa, which, before its annexation to France, was greatly degenerated from its former splendour. The old government was aristocratical, being vested in the nobility; the chief person was called the Doge, or Duke: to which dignity no person was promoted till he was 50 years of age. This office was elective, and the person chosen continued in office two years. In the early history of Europe, the country comprising this republic was subject to the Lombards, and the emperors of Germany; but at the beginning of the 9th century it had established its independence, and seized Corsica. In the 11th and 12th centuries it was distinguished in the

crusades, the Genoese rendering themselves masters of the Black Sea, with establishments in the Crimea, and in the suburbs of Pera at Constantinople, where they remained till the Turks took that city. Genoa strongly contested with Venice the dominion of the sea; and the war was not terminated till 1381. In 1471, the Genoese were expelled from the Crimea; but their maritime power continued respectable. Being exhausted by the Venetian war, Genoa offered voluntary subjection to France and Milan; but in 1528 Andrew Doria delivered his country, and introduced a more stable and aristocratic government, which continued till 1798, when the French form was chosen, and the new style assumed of the Ligurian republic, which was confirmed by the treaty of February 1801; but, to answer the preposterous ambition of Buonaparte, it was afterwards annexed to his kingdom of Italy, with which it continued till 1809, when it was formally annexed to France. The air is pure and salubrious, and there are excellent fruits and vegetables; but the grain is not sufficient for the consumption. The Apennine mountains, which inclose this region, are in some places covered with forests, but in others are barren rocks, while in a few they afford delicious pasturage. It is 120 miles in length, but does not exceed 20 in breadth. It extends along that part of the Mediterranean called the Gulf of Genoa, and is divided into two districts, viz. the Eastern and the Western Coast. The chief places are,

1. *Genoa*, the capital, which stands on the coast of the Mediterranean, 62 miles S.E. of Turin. It is situated on a declivity, in the form of an amphitheatre, and appears to great advantage from the sea. The houses are lofty and well built, and the New and Balbi streets consist each of a double row of magnificent palaces; the other streets are crooked and narrow; but the suburb of San Pietra d'Arena contains many noble buildings. Here are several palaces, churches, convents, hospitals, &c. many of which are superbly built of marble. Of the churches, the finest are those of the Annunciation, St. Mary Carignan, St. Dominic, and St. Martha. In the cathedral is a dish made of a single emerald. All the inhabitants here, except the principal ladies, walk on foot, on account of the narrowness or steepness of the streets. The fortifications of this city towards the sea are remarkably strong; and on the land side they are defended by a double wall, bastions, &c. There are two fine stone bridges over the rivers Bonzevera and Bisagno; the first of which washes the west, and the other the east side of the city, within which there is also a surprising stone bridge, joining

joining two hills. The harbour, though large, is far from being safe; but no care nor expence has been spared to render it as commodious as possible. On a rock, on the west side of the harbour is the fanal, or light-house. The trade of Genoa is chiefly in velvets, damasks, plush and other silks, brocades, lace, gloves, sweetmeats, fruits, oil, anchovies, and medicinal drugs from the Levant. It suffered greatly from the siege of 1799, when General Massena, with the remains of the French army, took refuge here, and held out upwards of two months against the Austrians, but was at length compelled to surrender. Upwards of 10,000 of the inhabitants perished in the siege; and most of the public edifices were injured. This city contains about 80,000 souls.

2. *Savona*, a large town, 30 miles S. W. of Genoa, with a strong citadel. It formerly had a harbour capable of receiving large ships, but which was partly choked up by the Genoese, who were fearful that it would injure the trade of their own city. It contains several fine churches and well-built edifices. The climate is here so mild, that Mr. Addison says, he saw several persons, who, in the midst of December, had nothing over their shoulders but their shirts, without complaining of the cold.

HOLLAND,

Or, as they were called before the French revolution, the SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES, in ancient times were chiefly possessed by the Batavi, a people highly celebrated by Tacitus: but the boundaries being modern, there is no ancient appellation which particularly denotes this country. It was commonly styled the republic of Holland, from the name of a chief province, said to be so called from the German word *hohl*, corresponding with the English word "hollow," and implying a hollow or very low country. The people are called Dutch, from the German *Deutsch*, or *Teutsch*: but *Deutschland* properly signifies the vast extent of Germany itself, this being the word which we translate "Germany."

These provinces extended from north to south about 150 British miles, and in breadth about 100. They were, properly speaking, eight in number, viz. Holland, Overysse, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they were generally termed the Seven United Provinces. Besides these, the Dutch republic contained the country of Drenthe (a kind of separate province in Overysse, which had no share in the government), and what was called the Land of the Ge-

rality, or Dutch Brabant. These provinces formed, as it were, several commonwealths, each province being a distinct state, with an independent power within it to judge of all causes of what kind soever; but all joined together made one republic, the representatives of the states of which met at the Hague, under the direction of the stadtholder. This form of government existed from the year 1579, when the inhabitants took up arms against Philip II. of Spain, and obtained their independence, till 1795; when, on the flight of the stadtholder to England, it was formed into a republic, on the French model, and called the Batavian Republic. Under this form it continued nearly eight years, at which period it was again changed, through the influence of France, and the executive was placed under the direction of a grand pensionary. But this form of government was of still shorter duration; for within two years afterwards (in 1806) the emperor Napoleon, after uniting a considerable part of these territories to his empire, formed the remainder into a kingdom, and placed his brother Louis on the throne, which he filled till the middle of 1810; when, being unwilling to oppress his subjects, by rigorously enacting the commercial decrees of his brother, he abdicated the throne, and the whole country has been added to the French empire. It is now divided into eight departments (as specified in the table, at the beginning of this chapter), each of which is subdivided into seven circles or districts.

EMS.

This department is so denominated from the river Ems, which forms its eastern boundary, and divides it from the kingdom of Westphalia. It comprises the two ancient provinces of Friesland and Groningen, and is about 80 miles long, and 40 broad, where widest. On the sea-coast the climate is cold and humid, and the soil marshy and boggy; but the interior is more healthy. The chief towns are,

1. *Lewarden*, a large, rich, and populous city, situated in the part called Ostergow, 65 miles N.E. of Amsterdam. Its buildings, as well private as public, are magnificent; and it has several canals in the streets, which are a great assistance to the trade of the place, especially as they are continued, not only to the sea, but to the principal towns in the department. It contains above 20,000 inhabitants.

2. *Groningen*, an ancient and populous city, capital of the late province of the same name. It is seated at the junction of the rivers Annes and Dunster, nine miles from the sea, and 85 N.E. of Amsterdam. The houses are well built, the

streets spacious, and intersected by canals. Here are a famous university, and a very commodious harbour, into which ships enter, with great care, by means of a canal. Its inhabitants exceed 20,000, who carry on a great trade with the circumjacent towns and villages.

3. *Harlingen*, a considerable town, seated at the entrance into the Zuyder Zee, about 13 miles W. of Leuwarden. It is a place of great trade, and has a number of large vessels belonging to it. The houses are indifferently built, but the streets are wide, and of great length.

OLD YSSEL, OR ISSEL,

Situated to the south of the preceding, abounds in morasses, and is barren in comparison with the other provinces. Its greatest riches consist in turf, which is dug up here, and sent to the neighbouring provinces, particularly Amsterdam. The precise length and extent of this department have not been ascertained. The chief places are,

1. *Swol*, an ancient town, formerly imperial and Hanseatic, seated on the river Aa, 60 miles N.E. of Amsterdam. The houses are well built, and the streets regular and broad. Here was formerly an Augustine monastery, in which the celebrated Thomas à Kempis lived 71 years, and died at the age of 91. A canal begins at this place which extends to the river Yssel.

2. *Deventer*, a large and populous city, seated on the river Yssel, 46 miles E. of Amsterdam. It is well built, and has several spacious streets, intersected by canals. The river is navigable to the quays for small vessels, which renders this a place of some trade; and it has some manufactures of linens and woollens.

3. *Zutphen*, a considerable town, seated at the confluence of the Berkel and Yssel, nine miles S.E. of Deventer. It is mostly composed of houses of modern erection, having been nearly destroyed in the different wars with France, Spain &c.

RHINE,

To the south-west of the last-mentioned, is so denominated from the famous river of the same name, which forms its southern boundary. The chief towns are,

1. *Arnheim*, a large town, seated on the river Rhine, 60 miles S.E. of Amsterdam, near the place where the river divides itself into an easterly and northerly course, which renders it a place of great trade; but it contains nothing worthy particular description.

2. *Doesburg*, a rich and populous town, seated on the Yssel, near an extensive morass, which

makes the air unwholesome. The houses are ancient, and the streets irregular; but it has some extensive manufactures of woollen goods.

AMSTEL,

Situated to the west of the preceding, is composed of the middle portion of the late province of Holland. This is one of the finest departments of this country; and, for its size, is supposed to be one of the most populous spots on the globe. The only place of note is

Amsterdam, the chief city of the late republic of Holland, seated upon the small river Amstel. It is first mentioned in the 13th century; but in the 14th was reckoned among the commercial towns of Europe. About the middle of the 17th century, during the highest prosperity of the republic, it was enlarged by about one half. The haven is not distinguished by natural advantages, but has been improved and secured by art; and, in time of peace, the wide forests of masts impress every traveller with amazement. The population is computed at about 212,000. The streets are in general spacious and well paved; but some of the canals are stagnant. The houses have the common air of neatness peculiar to those of the Dutch. The chief public edifice is the state-house, founded on piles driven into the morass on which it stands: they are said to have amounted to 13,000, and were driven in at an immense expence. The exchange is a handsome edifice, as also the post-office; and some streets along the chief canals display houses of uniform grandeur. Some agreeable walks occur in the interior of the city; but the environs are chiefly visited by water: yet to the south there is an agreeable road to Ouderkerk, through pleasant gardens and groves. Amsterdam is 75 miles N. of Antwerp, 175 N.E. of London, 240 N.E. of Paris, and 560 N.W. of Vienna.

TEXEL.

This department comprises that part of the late province of Holland called West Friesland (which consists of six islands divided from each other by narrow channels), and so much of Holland as extends south along the sea coast as far as Leyden. The chief places are,

1. *Alkmaer*, a clean and populous town, 20 miles N.W. of Amsterdam. The houses are well built, and the streets tolerably regular and spacious. It is famous for the sale of Dutch cheese and butter, which are brought hither from the circumjacent country, and esteemed the best in Holland.

2. *Harlem*, a large, rich, and handsome city, computed to contain 40,000 souls; and, like Leyden,

Leyden, is fortified by old brick walls, the largest in Holland. It is noted for its fine church, in which is a celebrated organ, consisting of 8000 pipes; but it is more remarkable for power than sweetness. The house of Lawrence Coster, whom the Dutch assert to have been the inventor of the grand art of printing, stands near the church*. Here are considerable manufactures of linen, ribbands, and tapes. It is seated on the river Sparen, three miles from the sea, and 10 W. of Amsterdam.

3. *Leyden*, an ancient, rich, and populous city, supposed to be the *Lugdunum Batavorum* of antiquity. It is distinguished by its university, which generally contains about 200 students, though there are but two colleges. The houses are neat, and the public buildings magnificent. About four miles east of this city the ancient Rhine expires in a number of small channels, which are passed by so many bridges that the number has been computed at more than one hundred. The meadows and gardens around Leyden are remarkably productive; and there is a daily intercourse, by canals, with the other chief cities and provinces. Here are manufactures of the best cloths and stuffs in Holland, there being nearly 2000 workmen employed in them; and the annual fair is still much frequented. The population exceeds 60,000 souls.

DELFT,

Situated to the south of the preceding, is chiefly comprised of the south part of Holland

and Utrecht, and several small islands. The chief places are,

1. *Utrecht*, a large and handsome city, seated on the ancient channel of the Rhine, 18 miles S.S.E. of Amsterdam. It is of a square form, and about three miles in circumference, exclusive of the suburbs, which are more considerable. The churches and places of religious worship are numerous: that called the cathedral is a venerable fabric, with a lofty spire, the finest in Holland. Here are also a number of hospitals and charitable institutions, and a famous university. The public edifices are superb; and the buildings in general are of superior architecture, formed into regular and spacious streets. All the avenues of this city are handsome; and the environs are full of gardens, walks, and groves, which, added to the purity of the air, renders Utrecht one of the most agreeable places of residence in this country. It has often been besieged, and frequently taken; and is famous for the treaty of Utrecht, signed in 1579, between the Seven United Provinces. The population is estimated at 25,000.

2. *Rotterdam*, an ancient city, and celebrated sea-port, seated on the river Rotter, near its confluence with the Maese, 30 miles S.S.W. of Amsterdam. It contains about 60,000 people, and has a noble quay, with houses as handsome as any in the squares of London. The great length of the streets is characteristic of Dutch cities, and even towns; yet they are generally narrow, and the foot pavement is only distin-

* The art of printing deserves to be considered with respect and attention. From the ingenuity of the contrivance, it has ever excited mechanical curiosity; from its intimate connection with learning, it has justly claimed historical notice; and from its extensive influence on morality, politics, and religion, it is now become a very important speculation. Coining, and taking impressions in wax, are of great antiquity, and the principle is precisely that of printing. The application of this principle to the multiplication of books, constituted the discovery of the art of printing. The Chinese have for many ages printed with blocks, or whole pages engraved on wood; but the application of single letters, or moveable types, forms the merit and superiority of the European art. The honour of giving rise to this method has been claimed by the cities of Harlem, Mentz, and Strasburg; and to each of these it may be ascribed in some degree, as printers resident in each made successive improvements in the art.

It is recorded by a reputable author, that one Laurentius of Harlem, walking in a wood near that city, cut some letters upon the rind of a beech tree, which, for fancy's sake, being impressed upon paper, he printed one or two lines for his grandchildren; and this having succeeded, he invented a more glutinous ink, because he found the common liquid ink sunk and spread; and then formed whole pages of wood, with letters cut upon them, and (as nothing is complete at its first invention) the back sides of the pages were pasted together, that they might have the appearance of manuscripts written on both sides of the paper. These beechen letters he afterwards changed for leaden ones, and these again for a mixture of tin and lead, as a less flexible and more solid and durable substance. He died in 1440; and we may suppose his first attempt to have been about 1430.

From this period printing made a rapid progress in most of the principal towns in Europe, superseded the trade of copying, which was till then very considerable, and was in many places considered as a species of *black art* or *magic*. In 1490 it reached Constantinople, and was extended by the middle of the following century to Africa and America. It was introduced into Russia about 1560: but from motives either of policy or superstition, it was speedily suppressed by the ruling powers.

Before 1465, the uniform character was the old *Gothic*, or German-text; but in that year a book was printed in a kind of semi-Gothic of great elegance, and approaching nearly to the present upright Roman type, which latter was first used at Rome in 1467. Toward the end of the 5th century, Aldus invented the *Italic* character.

It was for a long time supposed that printing was first introduced and practised in England by William Caxton, a mercer and citizen of London, who, by many years residence in Holland, Flanders, and Germany, had informed himself of the whole process of the art; and, by the encouragement of the great, set up a press in Westminster Abbey in the year 1471. But a book has since been found, with a date of its impression from Oxford in 1468, and is considered as a proof of the exercise of printing in that university several years before Caxton began to practise it in London.

guished

guished by a clean row of bricks. The chief public buildings are the town-house, the East and West India houses, the arsenal, and the admiralty-house. In the market-place stands the statue of Erasmus. The canals, terraces, and draw-bridges, are engaging objects; but there is little of real elegance; and the Dutch idea of beauty is what we style prettiness. On the east side of the city is a large basin, and dock for building and repairing vessels.

3. *La Hague*, a town, which is one of the handsomest in Europe with regard to extent, the number and beauty of its palaces, streets, and agreeable walks. It is seated about two miles from the sea; and the inhabitants are computed at 36,000. The court, or palace, contains several chambers allotted to the different branches of government, besides the apartments of the late stadtholder. The states-general met in a room which contained twenty-six chairs, for the usual number of the members. The cabinet of natural history has been carried to France. On the north of the town is a noble grove, with alleys of oak and beech, leading to the House in the Wood, a palace of the late king; but the pleasantest road is that to Schevening, a village on the shore, two miles to the north-west, through four rows of lofty elms. *La Hague* is distinguished by its pleasant situation, and tranquil grandeur.

4. *Delft*, a well-built town, seated on a canal called the Schie, eight miles N.W. of Rotterdam. Its streets are intersected by canals, the banks of which are planted with trees. Vast quantities of fine glazed earthenware are made here, known by the names of Delft wares. Being seated much lower than the canal, the town is defended from inundation by three dykes. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants.

DOMMEL,

This department comprises all the western part of Dutch Brabant, which is very fertile and productive, abounding in all the necessaries of life. The chief places are,

1. *Bois-le-duc*, or *Herfogenbosch*, an ancient city, seated among morasses, between the rivers Dommel and Aa, 45 miles S.E. of Amsterdam, and two from the river Maese. The houses are mostly ancient, but intermixed with some modern edifices. It is strongly fortified; and has suffered greatly from having been often besieged.

2. *Nimeguen*, a considerable town, seated on the south side of the river Waal, 52 miles S.E. of Amsterdam. The houses are well built, and the streets uniform and regular. Here is a magnificent town-house, a citadel, and an ancient

palace. The trade of this town is very considerable.

3. *Breda*, a large, rich, strong, and beautiful city, seated on the Aa, 22 miles S.W. of Bois-le-duc. It contains several public buildings, four spacious market-places, about 2500 houses, and near 20,000 souls, who carry on a great trade in provisions of all kinds.

SCHELDT AND MEUSE.

This department comprehends the western part of the late Dutch Brabant, and the whole of the late province of Zealand, which is entirely composed of a number of islands, situated at the mouths of the Scheldt, Meuse, Rhine, and other rivers, the principal of which are,

	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.
Walcheren	13	8	Middleburg
Schowen	15	6	Zirizee
South Beveland . .	24	7	Goez
Tholin	14	6	Tholin.

Together with a number of others too tedious to detail. The chief places in this department are,

1. *Middleburg*, a large commercial town, the capital of the island of Walcheren, is supposed to contain 30,000 inhabitants. It has a large town-house, decorated with the statues of the ancient earls and countesses of Holland. It was not only the seat of the provincial states, but also of the council of Flanders, presiding over part of that country acquired by the Dutch. The large square is magnificent; and this city has communication with the sea by means of a canal.

2. *Bergen-op-Zoom*, a very strong town, seated on the river Zoom, 35 miles W. of Middleburg. It is a place of some trade, having communication with the Scheldt by means of a canal. The houses are but indifferently built, this place having suffered much from its frequent sieges.

3. *Flushing*, a town on the island of Walcheren, four miles S.W. of Middleburg. Before the late attack of the English fleet and army in 1809, it was a considerable place, and had an extensive foreign trade; but it is now chiefly a mass of ruins, and it will require a number of years to restore it to its recently flourishing condition.

FRENCH ISLANDS.

The islands belonging to this empire, if we exclude those belonging to the lately annexed territory of Holland (of which we have already had occasion to make mention in our outline of that unfortunate country), are by no means numerous or important. The most considerable is that of

CORSICA,

Which is situated in the Mediterranean sea, between the gulf of Genoa and the island of Sardinia, and is 81 miles in length, and from 20 to 45 in breadth. It is for the most part mountainous, woody, dry, and stony, and has little arable land. Some of the low grounds and valleys, however, yield corn, wine, figs, almonds, chesnuts, olives, and other fruits. It produces a good breed of cattle and horses; and the woods and forests abound with deer and other game, together with honey and wax. There are also some salt-works and hot-baths on the island, with crystals, iron, and alum.

This island will ever be famous in history for the noble stand its inhabitants made for their liberty against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards against the base efforts of the French to enslave them, though they were at length overpowered by numbers, and compelled to submit. Paoli, who commanded them in the struggle for freedom, was taken under the protection of the British court; and Theodore, their king, took refuge in England, where he remained in a very impoverished state many years, and at length died at a private lodging in Soho, in the year 1757.

In 1794 it was taken by the English, and annexed to the crown of Great Britain. A constitution was framed for it, a viceroy appointed, and a parliament assembled; but it was soon after re-taken by the French, and formally annexed to the then republic, since which period it has been greatly improved. It is divided into the two departments of GOLO and LIAMONE, the former of which comprehends the north-east, and the latter the south-west parts of the island. The chief towns are,

1. *Ajaccio*, the modern capital, which owes its present honours and prosperity to its having given birth to one of the most extraordinary characters that for several centuries has made a figure in the history of the universe; Napoleon Buonaparte, emperor of the French, &c. having been born in this city, August 15, 1769, of obscure parentage, his father following the profession of a lawyer. As in our historical outline we shall have to give a further account of this wonderful character, it will be unnecessary to enlarge here: but we cannot help remarking, as a most particular instance of divine punishment, the raising up of a scourge for the French people from among the inhabitants of Corsica, whom they had so grossly injured. Before the year 1800 this place was mean and inconsiderable. It is seated on the western side of the island, and has a good harbour, which within the last seven years has

been greatly improved, and lined with spacious and extensive quays. It is the see of a bishop, and has several churches. Should Europe, during the life of Bonaparte, ever enjoy a long peace, this place will, most probably, through his exertions, become one of the first cities in the empire. It at present contains nearly 10,000 souls.

2. *Bastia*, 55 miles N.E. of Ajaccio, is a strong sea-port, seated on a small bay, on the north-eastern coast, which is only capable of receiving small vessels. It is tolerably well built; and contains about 6000 inhabitants.

The other islands belonging to France are small and unimportant. On the western coast, first occurs OLERON, about fourteen miles long by two broad, celebrated for a code of maritime laws, issued by Richard I. king of England, of whose French territory this isle constituted a portion. To the north is the isle of RE, opposite Rochelle, noted for an expedition of the English in the 17th century, described by Lord Cherburch. YEU is a small isle, followed by NORRE-NOUITIER, which became remarkable in the war of La Vendée, being about eight miles long, and two in breadth. BELLE-ISLE, or Beautiful Island, gave name and title to a *ci-devant* duke and peer of a very noble family. It is about 18 miles long, and six broad, lying 18 miles from the continent, and almost entirely surrounded with rocks. The chief place on it is *Palais*, fortified with a castle, and having a good road.

The isle of USHANT, or OUESANT, is remarkable as the furthest head-land of France towards the west, being about 12 miles from the continent, and about nine in circumference, with several hamlets. The isles of St. MARÇOU, about seven miles south-east of La Hogue, received their names from St. Marçou, abbot of Nantoville, who died in 558.

SECTION II.

Climate and Seasons—Soil and Agriculture—Face of the Country and Mountains—Rivers—Lakes—Canals—Forests—Animals—Vegetables—Minerals—Curiosities—Antiquities—Original Population—Persons, Manners, Customs, and Dress—Manufactures and Commerce—Language and Literature—Religion, &c. of the present Inhabitants—Army—Navy—Revenue—Laws, Constitution and Form of Government, &c. &c.

Climate and Seasons.—THE climate of so extensive a country, as that which composes this empire may be expected to be various. In general, it is far more clear and serene than that of England; but the northern departments are exposed to heavy rains, which, however, produce beautiful verdure, and rich pasture. Mr. Young

the celebrated agriculturist, in his account of the late kingdom of France, divides it into three climates: the northern, the central, and the southern. In the first, though it lies to the south of England, the winter is much colder, and it yields no wines. The second, though warmer, has some small wines, but no maize; and the third produces wines, maize, and olives. These divisions proceed in an oblique manner, from the south-west to the north-east, so as to demonstrate that the eastern part of France is two and a half degrees of latitude hotter than the western; or if not hotter, more favourable to vegetation. The central division Mr. Young considers as one of the finest spots in the world. The chief disadvantage of the third climate is the flies, which during the hot months of summer are very troublesome.

The climate of the northern departments of the late Netherlands is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England.

The air of the late kingdom of Holland is foggy and gross, until it is purified by the frost in winter, when the east wind usually sets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. This moisture of the atmosphere causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reason of their perpetually rubbing and scouring, and of the brightness and cleanliness in their houses, so much taken notice of.

Soil and Agriculture.—This empire, in general, has an excellent soil, the variations of which have been ably illustrated by Mr. Young. The north-east part, from Lisle to Orleans, is a rich loam. Further to the west the land is poor and stony; the late province of Brittany being generally gravel, or gravelly sand, with low ridges of granite. The chalky loam runs through the centre of the kingdom, from Germany by Champagne to Charente; and on the north of the mountainous tract is a large extent of gravel, probably washed down in primeval times; but even the mountainous region of the south is generally fertile; though the large province formerly called Gascony presents many *landes*, or level heaths. The soil in general produces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of the fruits have a higher flavour than those in England; but the heat, in many of the southern parts, burns up the ground, so that it has no verdure; and the soil barely produces as much rye and chestnuts as serve to subsist the inhabitants. Within the last ten years great efforts have been made for the improvement of agriculture; and much of the land which remained uncultivated,

has been inclosed, and now yields an exuberance of corn, and all kinds of grain, in such abundance, that there is not only a sufficiency for the great increasing population of the country, but, in the summer of 1810, vast quantities were exported to England and other parts. No nation is better supplied than France is with wholesome springs and water, of which the inhabitants make excellent use, by the help of art and engines; for all the conveniences of life.

The soil of the late Netherlands, and its produce, are rich; especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture. The most barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. The state of agriculture in the Netherlands has received the highest praise from those well qualified to judge of it; and has, indeed, been celebrated for these 600 years past, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants.

The soil of Holland is unfavourable for agricultural improvements; but its extensive marshes produce abundance of large cattle, from the milk of which the inhabitants make vast quantities of butter and cheese, which are exported to all parts of Europe.

Face of the Country, and Mountains.—The ancient kingdom of France is generally plain; and the only hills deserving of the name are found in the south, in the late provinces of Auvergne and Languedoc, Dauphiné and Provence. Brittany corresponds greatly in appearance with Cornwall, and abounds in extensive heaths. In Lorrain are found the mountains of Vosges, far inferior to the southern elevations. For beauty Mr. Young prefers the Limosin to any other province of France; yet much of the kingdom is finely diversified with hill and dale; and the rivers, particularly the Seine, are often grand and picturesque.

The late Netherlands is a flat country, containing no mountains, and but few hills. "The rural scene," says Mr. Shaw, "presents here pleasing prospects on all sides; fields crowned with fruitful crops, meadows covered with numerous herds, neat and commodious farm-houses set singly or in groups, cheerful and extended villages embowered among trees, and divided from each other by small intervals; while through such fair landscapes wind the rivers, and extend the clear canals, of Flanders and Brabant." In the department of the Forests, the country is less cultivated, and presents a less lively scene.

Holland is a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several great rivers, and what the industry of the inhabitants have gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have raised, and still support, with incredible labour and expence. Here are no mountains, nor rising grounds,

grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple, has the appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained, at certain distances, by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in this country serve as high roads, are in the summer months highly offensive to the smell.

The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; the Vosges, which separate the department of that name from the departments of Upper Saone and Upper Rhine; Mont Jura, which divides France from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the late province of Languedoc; and Mont d'Or, in Puy de Dome. Their situations are as follows:

The mountains of Brittany are granitic and primitive, but, like those of Cornwall, of small elevation. They divide into branches, towards Brest and Alençon. The Vosges in the department of that name, in the south of ancient Lorraine, are supposed to be connected with the mountains of Switzerland.

Mont Jura, a vanguard of the Alps, forms a boundary between France and Switzerland. If Mont Blanc be admitted among the French mountains, the other Alps cannot rival its supreme elevation. The ancient province of Dauphiné displays several alpine branches, which also extend through great part of Provence.

To the west of the Rhone arises the grand chain of the Cevennes. The Cevennes seem the principal centre of the primitive mountains of France, extending into several branches. The principal branch runs along the river Ardeche, towards Ales. Another traverses the Rhone, on the side of Tournon and Vienne, towards the plains of Dauphiné. That forming the mountains of Beaujolais passes by Tarare, Autun, &c. till it be lost at Avalon. This branch is about 70 leagues in length, but in breadth sometimes not more than a league. It contains the copper-mines of Chesi and St. Bel, and some lead-mines: coal is also found in the declivities. Another is the branch which, separating the basin of the Loire from that of the Allier, forms the mountains of Forez: it passes Roanne on the one side, and Thiers on the other, and is lost towards St. Pierre le Moutier. The plain of Montbrisson is bounded by these third and fourth granitic branches. There are also that which, separating the basin of the Allier from that of the Cher, passes by Clermont to Montluçon; that stretching towards Limoges; that from the Dordogne towards the Charente; and that dividing the Dordogne from the Garonne. In the valley of

Plancher les Mines is found green granite, a rare substance, of which tables and other ornamental articles are made at Paris.

Rivers.—The principal rivers in this empire are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, the Seine, the Scheldt, the Rhine, and the Maese. The Loire, which is the largest in France, rises in the mountains of Cevennes, and takes its course north and north-west; after passing some of the largest cities in the interior, it falls into the Bay of Biscay below Nantes, being, with all its windings, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone rises in Switzerland, and flows south-west, through the lake of Geneva to Lyons: it then runs due south, till it falls into the Mediterranean below Arles by several mouths. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course first north-east, and falls into the Bay of Biscay below Bourdeaux. The Seine rises in the department of Cote d'Or, and runs from the south-east to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English Channel at Havre. The Scheldt rises about eight miles north of St. Quinten, in the department of Aisne; and, after running in a north-east direction, passes from Cambray to Antwerp; soon after which it divides itself into two channels, and falls into the North Sea, where it forms several large islands. The Rhine, which has already been described in our description of Germany, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and Sarte in its passage. The Maese, or Meuse, rises near the village of Mimeo, in the department of Upper Marne, and, after passing Namur, Liege, and Maestricht, joins the Waal, a branch of the Rhine, and falls into the sea by several mouths. To these we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; and the Charente, which rises near Havre-de-Grace, and discharges itself into the Bay of Biscay at Rochefort.

Lakes.—Few lakes are found in this empire. There is one on the top of a hill, near Allegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another near Issoire, in Puy de Dome; and one at La Besse, into which if a stone be thrown, it causes a noise like thunder.

The lakes of the late Netherlands and Holland are unimportant; the only one deserving notice is that called the Sea of Harlem, which is but of small extent: but here are several large inlets of the sea, particularly the Zuyder Zee, as it is termed, which is supposed to have been overflowed at the same period as were the estates of the famous Earl Goodwin, on the coast of Kent.

Canals.—The vast advantage, both in commerce and convenience, which arises to France from

from its numerous rivers, is wonderfully improved by canals. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680: it was intended for a communication between the Ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on, at an immense expence, for 100 miles, over hills and valleys, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not yet answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of 18 leagues, to the immense benefit of the public revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

The canals of the late kingdom of Holland are almost innumerable. The usual way of passing from town to town is by covered boats, called *treckschuits*, which are dragged along the canals by horses on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling, though dull to strangers, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but, as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of every country are conveyed at a small expence into various parts of Germany and Flanders. A *treckschuit* is divided into two different apartments, called the *roof* and the *ruim*; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is astonished when he beholds the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant and neat country houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure-grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge.

Forests.—The chief forests of France are those of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c.; and the forest of Fontainebleau, near as large; and near Morchismoir is a forest of tall, straight timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, lie in different provinces, but too remote from sea-carriage to be of much national utility.

Animals.—France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. The horses, black cattle, and sheep, are far inferior to the English; nor is the wool of the sheep so fine, though great pains are

now taking to improve it by the intermixture of the Spanish breed of sheep. The hair and skin of the chamois, or mountain-goats, are more valuable than those of England. There is no difference between the marine productions of France and those of England, except that the former is not so well served, even on the sea-coast, with salt-water fish. There is a considerable herring-fishery, and a valuable one for anchovies; and, in time of peace, the French have important fisheries upon the coast of America and Newfoundland.

The Dutch have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued; and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in any other nation in Europe. It is said that there are some wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys; but, being birds of passage, they leave the country in the middle of August, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fish are much the same as ours; but their sea-fish are generally larger, owing, perhaps, to their fishing in deep water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oyster-beds about the islands of the Texel, producing very large and well-tasted oysters. Notwithstanding all the inconveniences, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (except to travellers and strangers), as can be met with in any part of Europe.

Vegetables.—This country, in general, abounds in excellent roots, in all kinds of seasonings and salads, and in fruits of every sort, particularly grapes, figs, prunes, chesnuts, cyder in the northern provinces, and capers in the southern. It produces annually, though not enough for consumption, above 12,000,000 pounds of tobacco, besides hemp, flax, manna, saffron, and many drugs. Silk is so plentifully produced, besides what is imported, as to afford a considerable trade. The ancient province of Gatinois produces great quantities of saffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gascony, and other parts of France, are so well known that they need only be mentioned. It is sufficient to observe, that though they differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontinac; and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted.

Oak, elm, ash, and other timber, common in England, is found in France; but the internal parts of the kingdom now begin to feel the want of fuel. Much salt is made at Rhée, and about Rochefort,

Rochefort, on the coast of Saintonge. Languedoc produces a herb called kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent barilla, or pot-ashes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English, both in the management and disposition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux, and near Toulon.

The quantity of grain produced in Holland is not sufficient for home consumption; but, by draining the bogs and marshes, the Dutch have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of the best butter and cheese in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, and some fruit; but all the pit-coal and timber used there, and, indeed, most of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, are imported.

Of the botanical state of this country little can be advanced with certainty; for although its productions of this nature may be said to have been examined around Paris, Lyons, and Montpellier, with considerable accuracy, yet much is still wanting to furnish a complete history of its vegetables. They have no certain accounts of what are purely indigenous, or what are exotic, though the former must be more abundant in France than in any other country.

Minerals, and Mineral Waters.—At one period there were gold mines in the southern parts of France, and particles of that precious metal are still to be met with in some of the rivulets. There are mines of silver in the department of the Lower Rhine, and of copper in that of the Lower Alps. Mercury is found near Deux Ponts, in Mont Tonpere; antimony near Clermont, in Puy de Dome; and iron abounds in almost all the northern departments, the mines of which have been worked with great success since the revolution; and there were no less than 2000 furnaces engaged in this employment in 1798. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are found in many parts of the empire. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. Saltpetre is made in every part of France, and sea-salt is now procured free from oppressive duty, but not remarkable for its purity. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk; at Berry there is a mine of ochre, which serves for melting of metals, and for dyeing, particularly the best drab cloth; and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-stone open all over the country.

The recent acquisitions of the Netherlands and

Holland produce few subjects for the observation of mineralogists. Mines of iron, copper, lead, and sulphur are found in the department of Forêts, near Lemburg; and in the department of Sambre and Meuse there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossile nitre.

The mineral waters of Baresges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have, of late, been preferred to all the others of France for the recovery of health. The best judges think, however, that the cures performed by them are more owing to their accidental success with some great persons, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbatch, in the department of the Upper Rhine, are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Baguéis, not far from Baresges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort, as to the English baths, at spring and autumn. Forges, in the department of the Lower Seine, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, as well as many remarkable springs; but there is one near Aigne, in Puy de Dome, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste, but has a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die instantly.

In that part of the territory lately acquired from Germany, situated on the left bank of the Rhine, and now forming the department of Ourthe, are the celebrated waters of Spa, 17 miles south-east of the city of Liege. They were first discovered in 1326, and have been celebrated throughout Europe for their wonderful efficacy in the cure of almost every species of disease. Contiguous to the springs is the town of Spa, which contains about 300 houses, chiefly constructed of wood: that called the court of Linden is the best in the place, and the most frequented; it is said to be furnished with 150 beds, for the accommodation of strangers, of whom there are seldom less than 2000 at this place, in time of peace, from every country in Europe. In the adjoining department of Roer are the celebrated waters of Aix-la-Chapelle: they have been formed into two baths, and the springs of both are so hot that they are obliged to let them cool several hours before they use them.

Curiosities.—Among the natural curiosities of this extensive country there is a remarkable fountain near Grenoble, in the department of Isere, which emits red and blue flames that will burn paper, straw, and wood, but is said to have no effect upon gunpowder. In the environs of Bri-

ançon, manna, which falls in the night, and dissolves at sun-rise, is gathered from a kind of fir-trees. At Tremoulac is a small rivulet, which is said to be inflammable. Near Salens, in the department of Jura, are several remarkable caves, the descent into one of which is by a flight of 60 steps; at the bottom, by the aid of lighted torches, may be seen six springs of salt water, and two of fresh, gushing out with vast impetuosity, and running with great rapidity: the salt water is kept from the fresh by trenches, which conduct it into other vaults, wherein reservoirs are placed for its reception; it is afterwards raised to the surface of the earth, by proper engines, and, being put into pans, great quantities of salt are extracted from it. About twelve miles from Besançon is an immense cavern, 500 feet in length; at the bottom runs a small rivulet, which freezes in summer, but is quite limpid and flowing in winter. Near the mouth of the Rhone there is one of the most singular stony deserts in Europe, called the plain of La Crau, and comprehending about 150,000 English acres, entirely composed of shingles, or round gravel, some of which are as large as the head of a man.

Holland, like the Netherlands, presents none of the vast and grand scenery of nature. The numerous canals with which the country is intersected may be considered as interesting to the curiosity of the traveller; and the prodigious dykes (some of which are said to be 17 ells in thickness), mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are works equally stupendous and singular.

Antiquities.—This empire abounds in antiquities, among which are several ancient monuments ascribed to the primitive population of the Celts. The Greek colony at Marseilles first imparted some degree of civilization to the country; and the rude Gallic coins are evidently in imitation of the Grecian model. Many of them occur in the metal called by the ancients *electrum*; being a native mixture of gold and silver, probably from the ancient mines in the south of France.

In the northern departments, and the other parts possessed by the Belgæ, there are circles and other monuments of the kind which we call Druidic. Near the town of Carnac, on the coast of Vannes in Bretagne, there is a grand monument of this kind, far exceeding Stonehenge. The account of it says, that there are about 4000 stones,

many of them as high as 18 or 20 feet, disposed in the form of a quincunx of 11 rows.

Roman antiquities in France are numerous, and some of them in excellent preservation. Those at Nîmes are particularly celebrated, consisting chiefly of an amphitheatre, and the temple called La Maison Carrée. At Paris there are also some curious remains of Roman architecture*.

The other periods of French antiquity have been ably illustrated by the learned work of Montfaucon; and the disclosure of the grave of Childeric, near Tournay, in the last century presented some of the most curious fragments. In an old tower of St. Germain des Prés were representations of several of the first monarchs of the Franks, and many of their effigies were preserved on their tombs at St. Dennis, and other places, till the late revolution†.

The monuments of the Carlovingian race are numerous, and many Roman mosaics are yet extant. Several sacred edifices also exist, which were erected in this remote period. One of the most singular antiquities of the later periods is the suit of tapestry, which was preserved in the cathedral church of Bayeux in Normandy, representing the beginning and termination of the grand contest between William and Harold, which led to the conquest of England by the Normans. It is said to have been the work of Matilda, wife of William, and bears every mark of that remote antiquity. Kotzebue, during his late tour to Paris, though he professes himself to be by no means partial to antique studies, has given some interesting accounts of what he saw in that capital.

The ancient monuments of the United Provinces are far from being numerous or interesting. One of the chief remains of the Roman period is the ruined tower near Catwick, about six miles northwest from Leyden, at the ancient mouth of the Rhine. This place is commonly called Brittenburg, and is supposed by some to have been erected by Caligula. An inscription evinces that it was restored by Severus. Among the antiquities of the middle ages may be particularly named the church of Utrecht, with a tower of great height, commanding a view of the surrounding country. But Amsterdam itself, and most of the other cities, are comparatively of recent foundation, and contain but few monuments even of the middle ages.

Original Population.—The original population of Gaul has been ably illustrated by many authors.

* The remains of the Roman aqueduct called the Pont du Gard are a beautiful monument of antiquity.

† The late Travels of Mellin to the south of France are replete with interesting descriptions of antiquities. The museum of French monuments lately established at Paris is one of the most praise-worthy institutions of the present government. It is full of valuable curiosities, which have been saved from the wreck of the revolution. We have seen a periodical work published at Paris, for the purpose of representing and describing these remains of art.

The primitive inhabitants were the Celts, to whom no anterior people can be traced in the western regions of Europe; but on the south-west, the Aquitani, of African descent, had passed from Spain; and on the north-east the warlike German tribes, known by the name of Belgæ, had seized on a third part of the country, where they introduced the Gothic language and manners. On the south also the German Gauls had diffused themselves into what was called Gallia Bracata: nor must the Greek colonies be forgotten. The solidity and duration of the Roman conquests diffused the Latin language through all ranks. On the north-west extremity it is probable that there were remains of the ancient Celts, before the British colony proceeded there in the 5th century, and imparted a name to the district. The Franks from Germany, no doubt, contributed considerably to the population, and were the ruling people, though not the most numerous; and their language was, in the course of a few centuries, immerged in that of the former population.

The original population of Holland appears to have been Celtic; but when the Romans conquered that country, the chief inhabitants were the Batavi, the most northern people of Belgic Gaul, and undoubtedly a German or Gothic progeny.

Persons, Manners, Customs, and Dress.—The French in their persons are generally slender, well proportioned, and active. Their hair and eyes are for the most part black, and their complexions brown, which is the supposed cause of the prevailing custom of painting amongst the females, and even some of the other sex. The females are more celebrated for their sprightly wit than personal beauty. The peasantry are ordinary in general, at least in comparison with women of the same rank in England.

A national vanity is their predominant character: and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakness. It supports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inspires other nations. This character has been conspicuous both in the higher and middling rank, where it produces excellent officers, and in the common soldiers of France, who, it must be confessed, have of late years exhibited prodigies of valour.

The French affect freedom and wit; but fashionable dresses and diversions engross too much of their conversation. Their diversions are much the same as those of the English; but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into gross folly in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting indecent freedoms: but the seeming

levities of both sexes are seldom attended with that criminality which to people not used to their manners they seem to indicate; nor are the husbands so indifferent as we are apt to imagine about the conduct of their wives. The French are excessively credulous and litigious; but of all the people in the world they bear adversity with the best grace, though in prosperity many of them are apt to be insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious.

The most pleasing qualities of the French are vivacity, gaiety, politeness, and a propensity to social enjoyments, which enables them to dispose of their occupations and pleasures, in an agreeable succession, free from listlessness or fatigue. In general, Frenchmen regard care as a mortal poison, and study, if possible, to avoid its most distant approach. Even the violent changes which have taken place, seem to have little affected their characteristic gaiety.

While some physicians have attempted to account for English melancholy from the quantities consumed of animal food, it appears, on the contrary, that a Frenchman will devour as much as two Englishmen; disguised, indeed, and modified, so as to beguile and stimulate the appetite to larger indulgence.

Before the revolution the French were disposed to think very favourably of the English. They both imitated and admired our writers; and the works of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, and others, were eagerly read by the higher classes. But of late these have given place to writers of a more frivolous class, better suited to the loose and vitiated taste introduced by irreligion and national pride.

The French dress of both sexes is so well known that it is needless to expatiate upon it; but, indeed, their dress in cities and towns is so variable, that it is next to impossible to describe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours; and their constantly changing their fashions is of service to their manufactures. They have long afforded models of dress to all Europe; nor have the fashions of Paris yet totally lost their fantastic authority.

Several of the French manners and customs cannot be reconciled to the English, whose example of personal and domestic cleanliness must be admitted as worthy of imitation. The laws and decency of marriage are frequently sacrificed; and the looseness of the French morals has become proverbial. Their houses often display a strange mixture of magnificence and filthiness; and while even a cottage in England will give proof of attention to the comforts, conveniences, and infirmities of human nature, in France the nose may be assailed, while the eyes are enraptured.

The higher classes accomplish themselves in the exercises

exercises of dancing and fencing, in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in skill and gracefulness. They are fond of hunting; and since the revolution, they have left off their heavy jack-boots, huge war-saddles, and monstrous curb-bridles, and accommodate themselves to the English methods.

The Flemings, by which name the natives of the Low Countries were usually called, though the appellation was strictly applicable only to those of Flanders, have been generally esteemed a heavy, blunt, honest people, but their manners are somewhat indelicate. They are ignorant, and fond of religious ceremonies and exhibitions. Their diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries. In the part of the Netherlands which has been long in possession of the French, the inhabitants are become entirely French in their dress, language, and manners; but in the other parts the peasants dress like the Dutch boors, though the upper classes have long since adopted the French fashions.

The Dutch are remarkable for the extreme cleanliness observable in their houses and streets, even hamlets, inhabited by poor fishermen, displaying a neatness and freshness, which forms a striking contrast with the squalid appearance of the German villages. They are of a phlegmatic temperament; and their courage at sea is rather obstinacy than ardour; while from the same cause their labour is rather slow perseverance, than impetuous strength. In former times their knowledge was chiefly restricted to the affairs of state, and the art of getting money. But, as usual in the decrepitude and fall of a state, as well as in the old age of the individual, the miserable love of money at length supplanted every noble and generous feeling. This striking characteristic has impressed every spectator, from the days of Ray, the naturalist, who visited Holland in 1663, even to the present hour. Mrs. Radcliffe observes, that "the infatuation of loving money, not as a mean, but as an end, is paramount in the mind of almost every Dutchman, whatever may be his other dispositions and qualities; the addiction to it is fervent, inveterate, invincible, and universal, from youth to the feeblest old age."

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active, when they believe their interests at stake; witness their sea-wars with England and France. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and an ill-natured sort of people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit and affection for each other. Their tradesmen in general are reckoned honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words.

Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unsociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality. The Dutch have also been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both sexes, it is owing, in a great measure, to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler here than in most other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour, nor warm enough for love; so that the softer passions seem no natives of this country; and love itself is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, convenience, or habit: it is talked of sometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a discourse that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; as, to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserving it. Before the conquest of this country by the French, it was a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it might; nor did it often enter into the heads of this sagacious people that the common course of expence should equal the revenue; and when this happened, they thought they had lived that year to no purpose; and the report of it used to discredit a man among them as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so universal among them as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fashionable ladies, and some of them discover more propensity to gallantry than was known there in former times.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking-booths, skittle and other grounds, and small pieces of water, which form the amusement of the middling ranks; not to mention their hand-organs, and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is
amazing

amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

The costume of the Dutch formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men, and the jerkins, plain mobs, short petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickness and clumsiness of their persons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly among the seafaring people.

The use of salt and high-seasoned food is perhaps enforced by the humid climate, as well as that of spirituous liquors. Amongst the better sort of people, besides the usual games, the chief amusements were the theatres and the tea-gardens. The opulent merchants delighted in their villas, thickly planted among the numerous canals; and the smallness of the gardens was compensated by the richness of the miniature selection, in which perhaps one tulip root might cost fifty guineas. The Dutch perseverance is also displayed in the improvement of hyacinths, and other flowers, cultivated with great attention, because there was not room for the grander vegetables. But the chief amusements in so moist a climate were under the shelter of the domestic roof, in large and expensive collections of paintings and prints, which also became an article of commerce and avarice.

Manufactures and Commerce.—Next to Henry IV. justly styled the Great, the famous Colbert, minister to Louis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. In our account of the cities and towns we have shewn the importance and great variety of French manufactures. For a century, extending from 1650 to 1750, Mr. Young supposes France to have possessed the most flourishing manufactures in Europe. The chief imports were raw silk, wool, hemp, soda and pot-ash, raw hides, tallow, and timber; and the chief exports, manufactured silks, woollens, and linens of various kinds, gloves, skins, soap, oxen, sheep, mules, and, above all, wines and brandies. By the account for 1784, which did not include the provinces of Lorraine and Alsace, nor the West Indian trade, the statement was

Total exports, 307,151,700 livres.

— imports, 271,365,000

Balance, 35,786,700, or £1,565,668.

The trade with the West Indies, Mr. Young justly observes, gave a large balance against France, which in 1786 exported to the amount of more than 64,000,000 livres; but the imports

exceeded 174,000,000. The average imports of France in 1788 were about twelve millions and a half sterling; the exports nearly 15,000,000. The imports of Great Britain in the same year were about 18,000,000; the exports seventeen and a half. Since the French revolution, however, the commerce of England has been constantly on the increase; while that of our rival has been greatly reduced: but we are far from thinking, with Pinkerton and other modern writers, that it is totally annihilated.

Language and Literature.—One of the wisest measures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every proposal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He succeeded so far as to render it the most universal of all the living tongues; a circumstance that tended equally to his greatness and his glory; for his court and nation thereby became the school of arts, sciences, and politeness. The French is chiefly composed of words radically Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the English; but they are well adapted to subjects void of elevation or passion, and well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common conversation. By the residence of the numerous emigrant priests in England, for the last fourteen years, the French language has become tolerably general amongst us. The revolution has introduced such an exuberance of new words and phrases, that a new dictionary would be required to explain them.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows:

Nôtre Père, qui es aux cieux, ton nom soit sanctifié; ton regne vienne; ta volonté soit faite en la terre comme au ciel; donne nous aujourd'hui nôtre pain quotidien; pardonne nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés; et ne nous induis point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car à toi est le regne, la puissance, et la gloire, aux siècles des siècles. Amen.

For many centuries the inhabitants of this empire, like the other nations of Europe, were immersed in the grossest ignorance and barbarity. The first learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which improves the understanding, corrects the taste, or regulates the affections. It consisted in a subtle and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the study of the Greek and Roman writers, which first arose in Italy, diffused itself among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary pursuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in

France,

France, who greatly distinguished themselves by their writings; among whom were Budæus, Clemont Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens are also mentioned by every real scholar with respect. It was not, however, till the seventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Académie Française was formed for this purpose; and though their labours, considered as a body, were not so successful as might have been expected, some particular academicians have done great service to letters. In fact, literary copartnerships are seldom very successful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the present case. The academy published a dictionary for improving the French language, which was universally despised; Furetières, a single academician, published another, that met with universal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above £12,000 per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterprises upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign are too numerous to be mentioned. The tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deservedly obtained a very high reputation; the first was distinguished for skill in moving the passions; the second, for majesty: and both, for the strength and justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhaustible, and particularly in France. In works of satire and criticism, Boileau, who was a close imitator of the ancients, possessed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakspeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our superiors; Saurin, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Massillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to surpass. The genius, however, of their religion and government was extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the most useful branches of philosophy. All the establishments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of science, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whose interest it was to

keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and ministry, who had an equal interest in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every sound principle of government. The French have not, therefore, so many good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced some great men, who do honour to humanity; whose career no obstacle could stop; whose freedoms, no government, however despotic, no religion, however superstitious, could curb or restrain. As an historian De Thou is entitled to the highest praise; and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of the archbishop of Cambray? Few men have done more service to religion, either by their writing or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he is the legislator of nations: his works are read in every country and language; and wherever they are read, they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And indeed the distinguished literary productions of the reign of Lewis XV. universally breathe sentiments incompatible with superstition or despotism; but too many of them incur the opposite reproach of irreligion and licentiousness.

In the belles lettres, the lighter kinds of poetry, and lively essays, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers: among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, and Voltaire, as the most considerable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Descartes was the greatest philosopher in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems; which naturally prepared the way for the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flourished in the present age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert; the latter of whom, to the precision of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

In chemistry they have to boast the famous Lavoisier, the author of a new theory of this science, which has been productive of the most wonderful discoveries relative to the nature and properties of different bodies. He fell a sacrifice to revolutionary phrenzy, at the beginning of the late disturbances in this country. After his condemnation he requested a respite for a short time, to enable him to complete some experiments, the issue of which, he said, would be of incalculable benefit to mankind; but this was refused, and he was guillotined in 1794.

Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, were he not still more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature;

nature; and, under this view, his Natural History is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and, above all, Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Louis XIV. They have none at present to compare with them in the more noble kind of painting: but M. Greuse, for portraits and conversation-pieces, never, perhaps, was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper-plates have been universally and justly celebrated; but such a liberal patronage has been afforded to English artists, that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them also in the manufacture of paper proper for such impressions. Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our superiors in architecture; though we now are their equals in this art.

Before the revolution, there were in France twenty-eight universities or public colleges, as follow: Aix, Angers, Arles, Avignon, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Cayenne, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Pont-à-Moussen, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournon, and Valence. Among these, the Sorbonne, at Paris, was the most celebrated.

The following literary establishments were supported out of the national treasury: the French Academy, Academy of Belles Lettres, Academy of Sciences, Royal Society of Medicine, King's Library, Observatory, and the Free School of Design. Under the republic, primary, central, and special schools have been established: a primary school for each canton; a central school for each department; and special schools for the higher sciences, such as astronomy, and for those arts which require a particular education for the public service, such as medicine and surgery. Education in these establishments is at the public expence, but the scholars are maintained by their parents or friends.

An academy called the *National Institute* has likewise been founded, the installation of which took place in the hall of the former Academy of Sciences, in the palace of the National Museum, formerly the Louvre. It is composed of a hundred and forty-four members; among the first of whom were found the names of La Lande, La Place, Fourcroy, Reynel, Marmontel, Volney,

Berthollet, Bittaube, &c. This national academy holds a public meeting on the 15th of every month; its conferences point out and promote the progress of the arts and sciences; but it has no authority whatever over the schools.

The Dutch language is a dialect of the German, which it much resembles.

The literature of Holland is more respectable than that of the other Netherlands. The great Erasmus, the restorer of letters in western Europe, was born at Rotterdam in 1367. Johannes Secundus, one of the most elegant of modern Latin poets, was a native of the Hague, as the renowned Grotius was of Delft. Boerhaave, the celebrated physician, was born at Voorhoot, near Leyden. Dort produced Paul Merula, a distinguished antiquary, who, at the beginning of the 17th century, first discriminated the real origins of European nations; and the poets, antiquaries, &c. have been sufficiently numerous.

Holland contains several public seminaries; the most large and celebrated Latin schools were at Rotterdam, Breda, Middleburg, Groningen, &c. The universities are five; Leyden, Utrecht, Harderwyck, Franeker, and Groningen; with two inferior colleges at Amsterdam and Deventer. There is an academy of sciences at Harlem.

Religion.—The established religion of this empire is the Roman Catholic, though all other sects are now tolerated. Under the old monarchical government, France contained eighteen archbishoprics, and a hundred and nine bishoprics; but these, by the constitution framed by the first national assembly, were abolished, and the country was ecclesiastically divided into ten metropolitan circles. Subsequent revolutions produced different divisions, till, at length, it was declared that there was no predominant religion in France; and that none was patronized or paid by the state, but that all sect and modes of worship should enjoy equal toleration. But since the administration of the government has been vested in Buonaparte, he has concluded a *concordat*, or convention, with the pope, by which the Catholic religion is declared to be the religion of a great majority of the French people; and on that account it is the professed religion of the state, the government of which engages to make a suitable provision for the bishops and ministers. The concordat bears date September 10, 1801, by which France is ecclesiastically divided into ten archbishoprics, and fifty bishoprics, of which the following table presents an accurate description, specifying the different departments over which they preside.

Archbishoprics.

Archbishoprics. Bishoprics.	Departments.
Paris	Seine
Troyes . . .	Aube, Yonne
Amiens . . .	Somme, Oise
Soissons . . .	Aisne
Arras . . .	Straits of Calais
Cambray . . .	North
Versailles . . .	Seine and Oise, Eure and Loire
Meaux . . .	Seine and Marne, Marne
Orleans . . .	Loiret, Loire and Cher
Malines	Deux Nethe, Dyle
Namur . . .	Sambre and Meuse
Tournay . . .	Jemappe
Aix la Chapelle	Roer, Rhine and Moselle
Treves . . .	Sarve
Gand . . .	Scheldt, Lys
Liege . . .	Lower Meuse, Ourthe
Mentz . . .	Mont Tonnere
Besançon	Upper Saone, Doubs, Jura
Autun . . .	Saone and Loire, Nièvre
Metz . . .	Moselle, Forests, Ardennes
Strasbourg . . .	Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine
Nancy . . .	Meuse, Meurthe, Vosges
Dijon . . .	Cote d'Or, Upper Marne
Lyons	Rhone, Loire, Ain
Mende . . .	Ardeche, Lozere
Grenoble . . .	Isere
Valence . . .	Drome
Chambery . . .	Mont Blanc, Leman
Aix	Var, Mouths of the Rhone
Nice . . .	Maritime Alps
Avignon . . .	Gard, Vaucluse
Ajaccio . . .	Corsica
Digne . . .	Upper Alps, Lower Alps
Toulouse	Upper Garonne, Arriege
Cahors . . .	Lot, Aveyron
Montpellier	Herault, Tarn
Carcassonne	Aude, Pyrenees
Agen . . .	Lot and Garonne, Gers
Bayonne . . .	Landes, Upper & Lower Pyrenees
Bordeaux	Gironde
Poitiers . . .	Deux Sievres, Vienne
Rochelle . . .	Lower Charente, Vendée
Angouleme	Charente, Dordogne
Bourges	Cher, Indre
Clermont . . .	Allier, Puy de Dome
Saint Flour	Upper Loire, Cantal
Limoges . . .	Creuse, Correze, Upper Vienne
Tours	Indre and Loire
Le Mans . . .	Sarte, Mayenne
Angers . . .	Maine and Loire
Nantes . . .	Lower Loire
Rennes . . .	Ile and Vilaine
Vannes . . .	Morbihan
St. Brieux . . .	Cotes du Nord
Quimper . . .	Finisterre
Rouen	Lower Seine
Coutances . . .	Channel
Bayeux . . .	Calvados
Scez . . .	Orne
Evreux . . .	Eure

The salary of the archbishops is 15,000 franks, about £625; the bishops receive 10,000 franks, about £420 sterling.

The *curés*, or parish priests, are divided into two classes. The salary of the *curés* of the first class is 1500 franks (about £62 sterling); that of the second class is 1000 franks (about £42 sterling): but the general councils of each

diocese are empowered to grant them an augmentation of salary, such as circumstances may require. These salaries are paid by the state. The archbishops and bishops are bound to reside in their diocese, which they are not suffered to quit without the permission of government. They are required annually to visit in person a certain portion of their dioceses, and within five years the whole of it. The clergy in general are suffered to marry; but they cannot pronounce the nuptial benediction upon any individuals, without the parties having been first married by the civil magistrates. Each diocese has a public seminary, or college, with three vicars, and a vicar-general, to prepare students for holy orders: these vicars form a council for the bishop.

The Protestant religion, as professed by the different reformed churches, is also tolerated, and the maintenance of the ministers, when necessary, provided for in like manner by the state. They are composed of a great variety of different sects, and are daily increasing. Their number is estimated at one-twelfth of the existing population. There are many regular congregations, viz. German Lutherans, French and Swiss Calvinists, Bohemian anabaptists, and Walloon or Flemish dissidents, besides many chapels for the ambassadors. There are also many Jews.

The Protestant religion, in the Calvinistic form, prevails throughout the United Provinces. The states of Holland, in 1583, proposed that no other form of worship should be tolerated; but this resolution was wisely rejected: and every religion is permitted, on condition that it do not oppose the fundamental laws, or teach any doctrines subversive of the state; yet employments of any consequence can only be filled by Protestants.

The Roman Catholics are supposed to have 350 churches, served by 400 priests, exclusive of some in the conquered territory. The chief other sects are the Lutherans, the Remonstrants, or Arminians, who have 43 teachers, Anabaptists, Jews, and a few Quakers.

Population.—According to the latest calculations, France contained, at the commencement of the revolution, about twenty-six millions of inhabitants. It was lately supposed, by some speculative men, that the population of France had for many years been on the decline; but, upon accurate investigation, the reverse appeared to be the fact; for, according to the enumeration made by the government in 1805, the original territory of France was found to contain 27,989,924 souls, to which if we add the population of those departments that had been at that time annexed to France, the whole would form an aggregate of 35,051,143 individuals.

This

This immense population appears to be greatly on the increase; for, according to the *exposé*, as it is called, annually published by the existing government, it appears that, at the beginning of the year 1810, the French empire contained 16,784 square leagues, and 39,347,397 inhabitants, including the recently acquired territories in Italy; to this if we add the late annexation of the kingdom of Holland, which, according to an exact enumeration, contains 1,881,881 individuals, the total existing population of this empire will be found to amount to the prodigious number of 41,229,278 persons.

Army.—Under the late royal government, the army of France was estimated at 225,000 of which 170,000 were infantry, 44,000 cavalry, and 11,000 artillery. The political convulsions which have agitated this unhappy country, the enthusiasm, and yet more the despotism, of freedom, have occasionally, within these few years, swelled the French armies to the amazing computation of upwards of a million. But it may safely be doubted whether the real amount, at any time, exceeded 600,000 effective men, the French having swelled the number to intimidate their enemies, and the latter to appologize for their defeats. According to the French *exposé* of 1810, the exact amount of the army at Christmas, 1809, was 569,930 effective men.

Navy.—The maritime power of France was formidable, even to England, till the battle of La Hogue, since which the British flag has reigned triumphant on the ocean, and the struggles of France, though often energetic, have encountered the fixed destiny of inevitable defeat. So frequent, fatal, and decisive, have been the recent maritime humiliations of the French navy, that after the battle of Trafalgar, hardly the semblance of a warlike fleet could be presented; but since that period the most strenuous efforts have been made to improve the navy of this empire, which, according to the *exposé* of 1810, consisted of 40 sail of the line, and 30 frigates; and 20 sail of the line were represented as being on the stocks, some of which have since been launched at Antwerp and other sea-ports.

Revenue.—The revenue in the year 1788, before the revolution, was twenty millions and a half sterling; and the ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half.

The extraordinary expenses of the war carried on by the republic were principally defrayed by the seizure of church lands, confiscations, requisitions, and contributions imposed on the conquered countries, which are very different from permanent revenue. In the year 1797, Gilbert, a member of the council of five hundred, stated the revenue for the sixth

year at 479,593,579 livres, or £19,980,000 sterling.

On the 13th of October, 1799, the executive directory sent a message to the council of five hundred, stating the amount of the receipts of the 7th year of the republic at 476,000,000 livres, or somewhat above £19,800,000 sterling. The expenses of the year they stated, at the same time, at 726,000,000 livres, or £30,250,000 sterling.

The following statements are given in the *Comptes Généraux du Trésor Public*, printed at Paris, in 1805. They were presented to the emperor by Barbé Marbois, a minister of known exactness and probity; but the various years are so confounded, that it becomes a matter of calculation to discover the receipt and expence of 1804. From the prefatory address to the emperor, p. 13, it appears, that seven millions had been assigned for repairing the highways; two millions for the noble road by Mont Simplon; a like sum for the great bridges; six millions for canals and drying marshes; two millions and a half for internal navigation; and three for the restoration of the sea-ports. In pages 128 and 129, the annuities are stated at 19,288,550 francs, and the pensions at 24,891,177. It appears from page 111, that the total receipt of the 12th year was 764 millions, and the expence 768 millions, or about £32,000,000 sterling. The *exposé* of 1810 states the total amount of the revenue of 1809 to have been upwards of 720,000,000 francs, or £30,000,000 sterling. The national debt is now about £75,000,000 sterling.

Laws.—With respect to the judicial administration of the country, when the will of the present despot does not interfere, the laws are grounded on the Roman, or civil, and particular local customs. Each district has a primary judicial tribunal, and each department a criminal tribunal. Every three departments possess a tribunal of appeal, which takes cognizance by appeal of all the causes determined by the tribunals of the districts under its jurisdiction. Each canton has a justice of the peace. All the tribunals of appeal acknowledge a superior tribunal, called the *court of cassation*, possessing the power of annulling the sentences of the tribunals of appeal which appear to it illegal, and of referring the examination of the cause to any other tribunal it shall please to appoint.

The civil laws of France have been recently digested into one small volume. It is divided into three books: the first concerning persons; the second, property and its different modifications; and the third, the manner in which it may be acquired.

Titles, &c.—The first national assembly abolished all nobility, hereditary distinctions, difference

ence of orders, titles, denominations, and prerogatives. Even the appellation of *Monsieur* was disused, and that of *Citizen* substituted in its stead. Since, however, the accession of Bonaparte to sovereign power, the term *Citizen* is laid aside, and that of *Monsieur* revived. He has himself taken the title of *His Imperial Majesty*, and his brothers are styled *Their Imperial Highnesses*. He has appointed marshals of the empire, grand dignitaries, an arch-elect, arch-chancellor, &c. He has likewise instituted what is called a *Legion of Honour*, the commanders and members of which are nominated by himself, and has raised several of his generals to the dignity of dukes. He has taken care, however, that their titles are not derived from any place in France, but from the different battles in which they have distinguished themselves, or cities they may have taken.

Constitution and Government.—France, by the revolution in 1789, founded a new constitution, upon the principle that all men are free and equal in their rights. After the death of the king, in 1793, another constitution was framed, and adopted, which was again succeeded by another, usually called *the constitution of the third year*. By this constitution the government was vested in a directory of five members; and a legislative body composed of a council of ancients, of two hundred and fifty members, and a council of five hundred.

But in November, 1799, this constitution was likewise overthrown, and a new form of government erected, consisting of what is called a conservative senate of eighty members; a tribunate of one hundred; a legislative body of three hundred; and three consuls, nominated for ten years and indefinitely re-eligible. The first consul, which office was held by General Bonaparte, possessed all the real powers of government. Bonaparte afterwards procured himself to be declared consul for life; and has since, with equal arrogance and vanity, assumed the title of *Emperor*, and remains in the possession and exercise of the most arbitrary power. The imperial authority is declared hereditary in the male line of his posterity, or, that failing, in that of his imperial brothers, Joseph and Lewis Bonaparte.

The present state of the government of France is thus impartially described by M. Walckenaer:

“The executive power of the government is lodged with complete plenitude in the will of the emperor Napoleon Bonaparte, who has the power of adopting a successor.

“The new laws are first proposed by the government to an assembly of fifty members, called the Tribunate, which discusses them. They are afterwards debated by the orators of government, and of the tribunate, before the legislative body,

which sanctions or rejects them, without any discussion, by secret scrutiny.

“The government may retract a project of a law, in whatever state of discussion it may be.

“The legislative body, and the tribunate, are renewed in part each year, and the new members are chosen by the conservative senate, upon lists formed by the electoral colleges of the departments; of which the members are for life. These electoral colleges of the departments are chosen by the electoral colleges of the *arrondissements*, or districts themselves, elected by assemblies of each canton, or what might be called in old English, tythings, composed of householders. The emperor names the president of each assembly of the canton; and the president chooses the scrutators and the secretary. These assemblies, as well as those of the electoral colleges, are convoked and dissolved by order of the emperor, who can also add to each college of the district ten members named by himself, and twenty to each electoral college of the department.

“The members of the conservative senate are for life. The nomination belongs to the emperor, who presents three, of whom the choice belongs to the senate itself; or, according to another disposition, the emperor may present one, the tribunate one, and the legislative body one. These members must be taken from a list, formed by the electoral colleges of the departments; but the emperor may, without the participation of the senate, and without any attention to the electoral colleges, name any person member of the conservative senate, provided that he have attained the age prescribed by the law, and that the number do not exceed 120. It must be observed, that the senators may be ministers, ambassadors extraordinary, and occupy other employments of great consequence, which are at the disposal of the government.

“The senate cannot proceed to any business except it be proposed by the emperor, save only in cases of its own arrangements. But by its *senatus-consulta*, which cannot proceed except upon the proposition of the emperor, it exercises supreme power even upon the constitutional laws, in adding, explaining, or suspending the execution; in dissolving the legislative body and the tribunate; and even in annulling the judgments of the civil and criminal tribunals, when it supposes them obnoxious to the safety of the state.

“Excepting the supremacy of the senate, and right of pardon, which belong to the emperor, the tribunal of cassation exercises the supreme judiciary power, with a right of censure and discipline over the tribunals of appeal, and the criminal tribunals, annulling their judgments in cases of contradiction to the law, or want of form,

form, and even with the power of suspending the judges. There is a grand judge, or minister of justice, who, on solemn occasions, presides in the tribunal of cassation, and the tribunals of appeals. There are also, unhappily, for certain crimes, special tribunals, of which the judgments are not subject to appeal, being exempt from the ordinary forms. All the judges, except the justices of peace, are for life, and named by the emperor; nevertheless for those of the tribunal of cassation he presents three persons to the senate, whose choice is definitive.

"A longer detail concerning the French constitution, still so new, and of which the most interesting portion for the future happiness of France still rests perhaps in the thought of the legislature, would be useless. Those who reflect, know how difficult it is to speak with any degree of propriety of a government which has accomplished such great objects, and succeeded to such opposite factions, and towards which are necessarily directed all the enmities of frustrated ambition, and all the hopes of those who still aspire.*"

The senate is regarded as the chief authority in the state, after the emperor; and, perhaps, as representing the entire nation: but the council of state, which meets in the imperial palace of the Tuilleries, and consists of about 30 members, is of more real solid authority; and the members, in general, men selected for talents and experience. But the executive government, at present, is nothing less than a military despotism; and Bonaparte owes his very existence, either as a man or a monarch, to the attachment of the soldiery: let him lose that, and he is inevitably undone.

SECTION III.

Summary of the History of the French Empire.

IN our account of the original population of this country we have noticed that its earliest inhabitants, of which history preserves any remains, were the Celts or Gauls, who were a very athletic and warlike race, and often checked the progress of the Roman arms; nor did they yield till the time of Julius Cæsar, who totally subdued their country, and finally reduced it to the form of a Roman province. It conti-

nued under the domination of that empire as long as it retained its strength, and the emperors were in a condition to repress the incursions of the German nations, whom, even in the zenith of their power, they had not been able entirely to subdue. But when the ancient Roman valour and discipline began to decline, the same care to defend the provinces was not taken as formerly, and the barbarous nations began to make much more frequent incursions. Among the rest, the Franks, a German nation, inhabiting the banks of the Rhine, proved particularly troublesome. Their origin is variously accounted for; but the most probable supposition is, that, during the reign of the emperor Gordian, the people inhabiting the banks of the Lower Rhine and the Weser, entered into a confederacy together, and assumed the name of *Franks*, or *Freemen*, about the year 254. From this period they made war upon the Romans with various success, till, in 388, they cut off the whole army that was sent against them.

After establishing their power in the circumjacent country, and reducing the original natives to a state of slavery, they parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and which to this day continue in Germany; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Having excited the indignation of the Romans in 420, the emperor Valentian's general, Aëtius, entered the country with a powerful force, and checked their progress. At this time the Franks were governed by one Pharamond, the first of their kings of whom we have any account, who is supposed, by archbishop Usher, to have reigned from 418 to 428, when he was killed in battle against Aëtius, and succeeded by his son Clodio, who made Cambray the capital of his kingdom. He died in 448, and was succeeded by Maroevius, a wise and judicious prince, who reigned only ten

* M. Donnant observes, that the present constitution of France presents four departments. 1. The emperor, surrounded by a council of state, which directs the forms of laws, and resolves any difficulties which may occur in the administration. There are seven ministers, namely, the grand judge, or minister of justice; the ministers of the exterior and interior, of the finances, and of the treasury, of war and the marine; to which may be added, the minister of the police. 2. The conservative senate, consisting of eighty members, and so called because it ought to preserve the constitution, being the highest deliberative assembly. 3. The legislative body, of 300 members, admits or rejects new laws by secret scrutiny. 4. The tribunate, of 100 members, deliberates on the projects of laws. The chief tribunal of cassation is the last court of resort: there are besides, tribunals of appeal, criminal, special, &c.

years, and was followed by his son, Childeric, who was a warlike and enterprising monarch, and greatly extended his dominions. His son, the first Christian monarch of the Franks, was Clovis, who began his reign in 468, from which period the French history exhibits a series of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils or in foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In 800, Charlemagne, king of France, who is often mentioned as the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope. He divided his empire, by will, among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this the Normans, a fierce, warlike race of men from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France; and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France, which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William, duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almost continual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithstanding their numbers, and the assistance they received from Scotland.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown in two respects: in the first place, it carried off hundreds of thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king; in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But passing over the dark ages of the crusades, the expedition to the Holy Land, and the wars with England, which have been already mentioned, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe in the reign of Francis I. cotemporary with

Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swiss, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities, and great defects. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost the imperial crown, Charles V. of the house of Austria, and king of Spain, being chosen. In the year 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two kings met in an open plain near Calais, where they and their attendants displayed such magnificence as procured it the name of the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Feats of chivalry, parties of gallantry, together with such exercises and pastimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than serious business, occupied both courts during eighteen days that they continued together*. Francis made some successful expeditions against Spain, but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power; by which he disobliterated the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a confederacy against him, with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In his adventurous expedition into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions was afterwards the source of many wars between him and the emperor. He died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithstanding the variety of disagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flourishing condition. Francis I. was succeeded by his son, Henry II., who, upon the whole, was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany, to the great advantage of his own dominions, and was so well served by the duke of Guise, that though he lost the battle of St. Quintin, against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who have never since had any footing in France. He married his son, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this scheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomeri.

* The French and English historians describe the pomp of this interview, and the various spectacles, with great minuteness. One circumstance mentioned by the Mareschal de Fleuranges, who was present, and which appears singular in the present age, is commonly omitted. "After the tournament," says he, "the French and English wrestlers made their appearance, and wrestled in presence of the kings and the ladies; and as there were many stout wrestlers there, it afforded excellent pastime; but as the king of France had neglected to bring any wrestlers out of Bretagne, the English gained the prize. After this, the kings of France and England retired to a tent, where they drank together; and the king of England, seizing the king of France by the collar, said, *My brother, I must wrestle with you*, and endeavoured once or twice to trip up his heels; but the king of France, who was a dexterous wrestler, twisted him round, and threw him on the earth with prodigious violence. The king of England wanted to renew the combat, but was prevented." *Memoires de Fleuranges*, 12mo. Paris, 1753, p. 329.

He was succeeded by his son Francis II., a weak, sickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy which had adopted the cause of Huguenotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death for a conspiracy against the court; but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the Protestants, was assassinated by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjustly thought to have been instigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the Protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded. At last the court pretended to grant the Huguenots a very advantageous peace; and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a Protestant, and the French king's sister. The heads of the Protestants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if possible, in one night. This project proved but too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the massacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The signal for the inhuman slaughter of so many thousands was to be made by striking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect, amidst the general carnage, that some few moments should be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to rest, when he was aroused by the noise of the assassins who had surrounded his house. A German, named Besme, entered his chamber; and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever distinguished him. Incapable of resistance, from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to assassinate him, with an undismayed countenance, he had scarce uttered

the words, "Young man, respect these grey hairs, nor stain them with blood," when Besme plunged his sword into his bosom, and, with his barbarous associates, threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guise contemplated it in silence; but Henry, count d'Angoulême, natural brother to Charles, spurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friends! we have begun well: let us finish in the same manner." It is said, that about 30,000 Protestants were murdered at Paris; and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573 with the Protestants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had some time before been chosen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he, with some difficulty, escaped to France, where he took quiet possession of that crown by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had lost. The heads of the Protestants could raise armies of Huguenots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A *holy league* was formed for the defence of the Catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. The Protestants, under the prince of Condé and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called the German princes to their assistance; and a sixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himself lord of the Netherlands. The civil war was finished within the year, by another pretended peace. The king, from his first accession to the crown, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagances. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscriptions of the Protestants, and the setting aside from the succession the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guise, the idol of the Roman Catholics, on the throne; to which that duke had some distant pretensions. To secure himself on the throne, a seventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the disadvantage of the Protestants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that, after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he and his brother the cardinal were, by his

majesty's orders, and in a manner under his eyes, basely assassinated in 1588. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the Protestants; but while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was in his turn assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre*, head of the house of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Maine, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle of the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Their party being strongly supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage, and magnanimity, seemed only to make him more illustriously unfortunate: for he and his little court were sometimes without common necessities. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection lay against him, but that of religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselves; and the French nation, in general, were jealous of the Spaniards. Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself a Roman Catholic. This was called a measure of prudence, if not of necessity; as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. This complaisance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained absolution from the pope, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for several years with various fortune. In 1598 he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to his old friends the Protestants the free exercise of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chastised the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself, with wonderful attention and success (assisted in all his undertakings by his minister, the great Sully), to promote the happiness of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk,

the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and, in a great measure, secured the happiness of his people, he formed connexions with the neighbouring powers, for reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army; others say (for his intention does not clearly appear) that he designed to have formed Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her for protection into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in these conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach in the streets of Paris, by one Ravallac, another young enthusiast like Clement, in 1610.

Lewis XIII., son to Henry IV., was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous Cardinal Richelieu, who put a period, by his resolute and bloody measures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the religious establishment of the Protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle; though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, made some weak efforts, by his fleet and armies, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thousand churches, as many monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were burnt or otherwise destroyed during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself bigoted to popery, supported the Protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the house of Austria. After quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Lewis XIII., who, in 1643, left his son, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV., to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the administration of his mother, Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Condé

* A small kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greatest part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predecessors had been unjustly dispossessed by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

flamed like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a Protestant had turned Papist. The nation of France was involved at once in civil wars and domestic dissensions. But the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarin for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually among themselves, that when Lewis assumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarin, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, who formed new systems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, in all of which he was extremely successful.

To write the history of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis; through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness; by the latter he embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. By his impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes in the year 1685, and his persecutions of the Protestants, he obliged them to take shelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they established the silk manufacture, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himself the divine honours paid to the Pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his own conveniency, and at last raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe, at the head of which was William III. of England. He was so well served that he made head for some years against this alliance; but having provoked the English by his repeated infidelities, their arms under the duke of Marlborough, and the Austrians under the prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning of it had been splendid. His reign from the year 1702 to 1712, was one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him, which, in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expense of many thousand lives. Just as he was reduced, old as he was, to the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was saved by the English Tory ministry deserting the cause, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht in 1713. He survived his deliverance but

two years; and, in his last hours, displayed a greatness of mind worthy of his elevated situation: "Why do you weep?" said he to his domestics; did you think me immortal?" He died on the 1st of September, 1715, and was succeeded by his great-grandson, Lewis XV.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children, might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been seized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of sense and spirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood; but he having embroiled himself with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent, on the 5th of December, 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

Among the first acts of the government of Lewis XV. was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards Cardinal Fleury, to be his first minister. Though his system was entirely pacific, yet the situation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland, in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the house of Austria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law, Stanislaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed, through the interposition of the Russians and Austrians; but Stanislaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorraine, during the remainder of his life. The connexion between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war against Great Britain, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy wretch, whose sullen mind, naturally frantic and savage, was inflamed by the disputes between the king and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the desperate resolution of attempting the life of his sovereign. In the dusk of the evening, as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was suddenly wounded, though slightly, with a penknife, between the fourth and fifth ribs, in the presence of his son, and in the midst of his guards. The daring assassin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, and was instantly betrayed by his countenance. He declared it never was his intention to kill the king, but that he only meant to wound him, that God might touch his heart, and incline him to restore the tranquillity of his dominions by re-establishing the parliament, and banishing the archbishop of Paris, whom he regarded as the source of the present commotions. In these frantic and incoherent declarations he persisted amidst the most exquisite torture; and after human ingenuity had been exhausted in devising new modes of torment, his judges, tired out with his obstinacy, consigned him to a death, the barbarity of which was increased by the evident madness that stimulated him.

him to the abominable and desperate attempt. He was conducted to the common place of execution, amidst a vast concourse of the populace, stripped naked, and fastened to the scaffold by iron gyves. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming sulphur. His thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red-hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, rosin, and sulphur, were poured into the wounds; and, to complete the horrid catastrophe, he was torn to pieces by horses.

The Jesuits, having rendered themselves universally odious by their share in the conspiracy against the late king of Portugal, fell in France under the lash of the civil power, for certain fraudulent mercantile transactions. They refused to discharge the debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large sum, and who was supposed to act for the benefit of the whole society. As a monk, indeed, he must necessarily do so. The parliaments eagerly seized an opportunity of humbling their spiritual enemies. The Jesuits were every where cited before those high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to do justice to their creditors. They seemed to acquiesce in the decision, but delayed payment under various pretences. New suits were commenced against them in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the course of these proceedings, which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent they were compelled to produce their *institute*, or the rules of their order, hitherto studiously concealed. That mysterious volume, which was found to contain maxims subversive of all civil government, and even of the fundamental principles of morals, completed their ruin. All their colleges were seized, all their effects confiscated; and the king, ashamed or afraid to protect them, not only resigned them to their fate, but finally expelled them the kingdom by a solemn edict, and utterly abolished the order of Jesuits in France.

Elated with this victory over ecclesiastical tyranny, the French parliaments attempted to set bounds to the absolute power of the crown, and seemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not satisfied with refusing, as usual, to register certain oppressive edicts, or with remonstrating against them, they ordered criminal prosecutions to be commenced against the governors of several provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the registration of those edicts. The magnanimity of these assemblies had awakened new ideas in the bosoms of the French; they were taught by the late remonstrances to consider their inherent rights; and this flame, in the succeeding reign, burst forth with accumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne of despotism.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontenoy in 1763, the chief events attending it, so humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the history of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corsica, a small island in the Mediterranean, had long resisted with manly firmness the oppressive councils of the Genoese, who claimed the sovereignty over it by right of conquest. But, unable to support those pretensions, Genoa transferred them to France, on condition that Lewis should put her in full possession of the adjacent island of Capraia, which the Corsicans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his engagements, powerful armaments were fitted out by Lewis at Antibes and Toulon; twenty battalions of French were landed in Corsica; and the natives, whose free suffrages had summoned Paoli, one of their principal chiefs, to the supreme government of the island, determined to defend their liberties to the utmost.

A sharp and bloody war, such as suited the inferior numbers of the inhabitants, and the nature of the country, was carried on in all the fastnesses and mountainous parts of the island; and it was not till after the French had fatally experienced, in two successive campaigns, the enthusiastic courage which animates the champions of freedom, that they overwhelmed, by their superior numbers, this unfortunate people; nor had Lewis much reason to triumph in an acquisition, to attain which he had sacrificed several thousands of his bravest troops, and only extended his dominion over a rugged and unproductive island.

The late unfortunate monarch, Lewis XVI. succeeded his grandfather, Lewis XV. on the 10th of May, 1774. Several regulations were made, after his accession, highly favourable to the general interests of the nation, particularly the suppression of the mousquetaires, and some other corps, which being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal person, than any real military service, were supported at a great expence, without an adequate return of benefit to the state. But one of the most remarkable circumstances which attended this reign, was the placing of M. Neckar, a Protestant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776; a measure contrary to the constant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the control of the revenue. Under the direction of Neckar, a general reform took place in France throughout every department of the revenue. When hostilities commenced in 1777, between France and Great Britain, in consequence of the assistance afforded by the former to the revolted British colonies in

America,

America, the people of France were less burdened with new taxes for carrying on the war, than usual; and the public revenue was augmented by the economy, improvements, and reformation, that were introduced into the management of the finances. In consequence of this national economy, the navy of France was raised to so great a height as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

In the beginning of the year 1780, in consequence of the representations of M. Necker, a variety of unnecessary offices in the household of the queen were abolished, and sundry other important regulations adopted, for the ease of the subject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. Could we implicitly credit his memorial, he changed the excess of the disbursements (at least one million sterling) of the year 1776, into an excess of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of £445,000. But the measures of M. Necker were not calculated to procure him friends at court: the vain, the interested, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have possessed sufficient firmness of mind to support an upright and able minister. He was therefore displaced, and is said to have been particularly opposed by the queen's party.

The freedom of America had been the grand object of France; and that having been acknowledged in the fullest and most express terms by Great Britain, the preliminary articles of peace were signed at Paris on the 20th of January, 1783; but the immense expences incurred were found at last to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means support; and the miserable exigencies to which government was reduced, contributed, no doubt, to bring about the late revolution.

The ambition of the French government made its subjects acquainted with liberty, by assisting the insurgents in America and Holland; and excited a spirit among the people, which could not well admit of the continuance of arbitrary power at home. M. Necker having been dismissed from the direction of public affairs, and succeeding ministers being endowed neither with his integrity nor abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being entirely ruined. When the edict for registering the loan at the conclusion of 1785, which amounted to the sum of £3,330,000, was presented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonstrances of that assembly, assumed a more legal and formidable appearance. The king, however, signified to the select deputations that were commissioned to convey to him their remonstrances, that he expected to be obeyed without

further delay. The ceremony of registering took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a resolution, importing that public economy was the only genuine source of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the necessity of the state, and restoring that credit which borrowing had brought to the brink of ruin.

This proceeding was no sooner known, than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament: he erased from their records the resolution that had been adopted; and declared himself satisfied with the conduct of Monsieur de Calonne, his comptroller-general.

However gratified by the support of his sovereign, Monsiur de Calonne could not fail of feeling himself deeply mortified by the opposition of the parliament. An anxious inquiry into the state of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues; in the present situation, to impose new taxes was impossible, to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous, and to have recourse only to economical reforms would be found wholly inadequate; and he hesitated not to declare, that it would be impossible to place the finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the constitution of the state. To give weight to this reform, the minister was sensible that something more was necessary than royal authority: he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if those plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom.

Under these circumstances, the only alternative that seemed to remain was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character; and that should consist, in a greater degree, of members from the various orders of the state, and the different provinces of the kingdom. But the true and legitimate assembly of the nation, the states-general, had not met since the year 1614. Another assembly had occasionally been substituted in the room of the states-general: this was distinguished by the title of the *notables*, or men of note, and consisted of a number of persons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the higher orders of the state, and nominated by the king himself. This assembly had been convened by Henry IV., and again by Lewis XIII.; and was now once more summoned by the authority of the present monarch; and the 29th of January, 1787, was the period appointed for their opening.

It was under great difficulties that Monsieur de Calonne first met the assembly of the notables, and

and opened his long-expected plan. He began by stating, that the public expenditure had for centuries past exceeded the revenues; that a very considerable deficiency had of course existed; and that, at his own accession to office, it was £3,330,000.

To remedy this evil, the comptroller-general recommended a territorial impost, in the nature of the English land-tax, from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; and an inquiry into the possessions of the clergy, which hitherto had been exempted from bearing a proportion of the public burdens. The various branches of internal taxation were also to undergo a strict examination; and a considerable resource was presented in mortgaging the demesne lands of the crown.

Before Monsieur Necker retired from the management of the finances, he had published his "*Compte rendu au Roi*," in which France was represented as possessing a clear surplus of £425,000 sterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and had been considered as an æra in the history of France. The credit of this statement was ably vindicated by Monsieur de Brienne, archbishop of Toulouse, and by the Count de Mirabeau, a still more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have successfully vindicated his system and reputation against the calculations of Brienne, and invectives of Mirabeau; but the genius of the comptroller-general sunk under the influence of the three great bodies of the nation. The grand and essential object of reform was to equalize the public burdens, and, by rendering the taxes general, to diminish the load of the lower and most useful classes of the people. The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public assessment; the crowds of new noblesse, who had purchased their patents, were, by that shameful custom, exempted, both themselves and their posterity, from contributing proportionably to the expences of the state; the magistracies likewise throughout the kingdom, enjoyed their share of exemptions; so that the whole weight of the taxes fell on those who were least able to bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, and the magistracy, were united against the minister; and the event was such as might be expected. The intrigues of those three bodies raised against him so loud a clamour, that, finding it impossible to stem the torrent, Monsieur de Calonne not only resigned his place on the 12th of April, but soon after retired to England from the storm of persecution.

The notables proceeded in their inquiries; and it was now suggested that an assembly of the states should be called, as the notables were not

competent to impose a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in secret, this proposal was instantly circulated through the capital, and supposed to be a new discovery. The notables were soon after dissolved, without having accomplished any thing except the justification of Monsieur Necker.

The stamp-act, however, was established, and a bed of justice was held by the king on the 5th of August, 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend, and the edict was registered, notwithstanding their protest to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated, were far from subdued: on the day after the king had held his bed of justice, they entered a formal protest against the concession that had been extorted from them.

Painful as every appearance of violence must have proved to the mild disposition of Lewis, he could not consent to surrender, without a struggle, that authority which had been so long exercised by his predecessors. Since the commencement of the present discontents, the capital had been gradually filled with considerable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered the protest, an officer of the French guards, with a party of soldiers, went at break of day to the house of each individual member, to signify to him the king's command, that he should immediately get into his carriage, and proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about seventy miles from Paris, without writing or speaking to any person out of his own house before his departure. These orders were served at the same instant; and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the transaction, the parliament were already on the road to the scene of their banishment.

So great was the resentment of the whole nation on account of the banishment of the parliament, that after a month's exile it was recalled. This was scarcely done, when they were desired to register a loan, at which they hesitated, notwithstanding all the manœuvres of the ministers. At last the king came to the house, and held what is called a royal session. The edicts were now registered; but the duke of Orleans protested, in the presence of the king, against the legality of the proceeding. The parliament protested against the legality of the session itself, but to no purpose. The duke of Orleans, with four others, were banished; the king called for the journals of the house, destroyed the protest, and forbade it to be inserted again. Great clamours were raised by the banishment of the duke of Orleans, and the other members of parliament; remonstrances were presented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes; but the exiles

were

were not recalled till the spring of the year 1788.

No alternative remained now to Lewis, but to plunge his country into all the calamity of civil war, or to comply with the wishes of his people, and re-establish the states-general. In the first case, he must have expected to encounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and examples of their magistrates; the peers of the realm had expressed the strongest disapprobation of his measures; nor could he even depend any longer on the princes of his blood: but what afforded most serious matter of alarm, was the spirit lately displayed among the military, who, during the disturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their swords against their countrymen; and many of those officers, who had recently served in America, publicly proclaimed their abhorrence of despotism.

It was under these impressions, in the beginning of August, an *arrêt* was published, which fixed the meeting of the states-general to the first of May in the ensuing year, viz. 1789; at the same time every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the administration; and Monsieur Necker, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced to the management of the finances; the torture, which by a former edict had been restricted in part, was entirely abolished; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law; and it was decreed, that, in future, sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of three judges.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the states-general, or national assembly, whose re-establishment, in the month of May, 1789, presented a new æra in the government of France. But the moment of this meeting was far from auspicious to the court, but greatly so to the interests of the nation. The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the states, was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by the suspicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were supposed already to repent of the hasty assent that had been extorted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom, increased the general gloom and discontent; and the people, pressed by hunger, and inflamed by resentment, were ripe for revolt. The sovereign also, equally

impatient of the obstacles he incessantly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again established, and was attended by the immediate removal of Monsieur Necker. This step, which evinced a total change of resolutions, and which, from the popularity of the minister, was likely to produce a violent fermentation in every order of men, was followed by others equally injudicious. The states-general were driven into the Salle des Etats, where they held their meetings, by detachments of the guards, who surrounded them, and who waited only the orders of the court to proceed to greater extremities against the obnoxious representatives of the nation.

Had these manifestations of vigour been only sustained by instantly attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted, that, unprepared as it still was, and unwilling to expose to the licence of an incensed soldiery the lives and properties of its citizens, the capital would have been without difficulty reduced to obedience. But the delay which succeeded gave the inhabitants time to recover from their first emotions of surprise and apprehension. They saw the timidity and imbecility of the government, which, having sounded the charge, dared not advance to the attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and passing from one extreme rapidly to another, they almost unanimously took up arms against their rulers. Joined by the French guards, who from a long residence in the capital, had been peculiarly exposed to seduction, and who at this decisive moment abandoned their sovereign, the Parisians broke through every obstacle by which they had hitherto been restrained. The supplies of arms and ammunition which had been provided for their subjugation, were turned against the crown; and the Hôtel des Invalides, the great repository of military stores, after a faint resistance, surrendered.

The prince de Lambesc, who alone, of all the officers commanding the royal troops in the vicinity of Paris, attempted to carry into execution the plan for disarming the capital, was repulsed in a premature and injudicious attack which he made at the head of his dragoons, near the entrance of the garden of the Tuilleries. Already the *Prevôt des Marchands*, Monsieur de Flesselles, convicted of entertaining a correspondence with the court, and detected of sending private intelligence to Monsieur de Launay, governor of the Bastile, had been seized by the people, and fallen the first victim to general indignation. His head borne on a lance, exhibited an alarming spectacle of the danger to which adherence to the sovereign must expose in a time of anarchy and insurrection.

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The Bastile alone remained : and while it continued in the power of the crown, Paris could not be regarded as secure from the severest chastisement. It was instantly invested, on the 14th of July 1789, by a mixed multitude, composed of citizens, and soldiers who had joined the popular banner. De Launay, who commanded in the castle, by an act of perfidy unjustifiable under any circumstances, and which rendered his fate less regretted, rather accelerated than delayed the capture of that important fortress. He displayed a flag of truce, and demanded a parley ; but abusing the confidence which these signals inspired, he discharged a heavy fire from the cannon and musketry of the place upon the besiegers, and made considerable carnage. Far from intimidating, he augmented, by so treacherous a breach of faith, the rage of an incensed populace. They renewed their exertions with a valour raised to phrensy, and were crowned with success. The Bastile, that awful engine of despotism, whose name alone diffused terror, and which for many ages had been sacred to silence and despair, was entered by the victorious assailants. De Launay, seized and dragged to the Place de Grève, was instantly dispatched, and his head carried in triumph through the streets of Paris.

In this prison were found the most horrible engines, for putting to the severest tortures those unhappy persons whom the cruelty or jealousy of despotism had determined to destroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons in weight, was found with the skeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrid mansion. Among the prisoners released by its destruction were, Major White, a Scotsman ; earl of Massarene, an Irish nobleman ; and the Count de Lorges. The former appeared to have his intellectual faculties almost totally impaired by the long confinement and miseries he had endured ; and, by being unaccustomed to converse with any human creature, had forgotten the use of speech. Earl Massarene, at his arrival on the British shore, eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and kissing the ground, thrice exclaimed, " God bless this land of liberty ! " The Count de Lorges, at a very advanced period of life, was also liberated, and exhibited to the public curiosity in the Palais Royal. His squalid appearance, his white beard, which descended to his waist, and, above all, his imbecility, resulting, probably, from the effect of an imprisonment of thirty-two years, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the senses and passions of every beholder. It is, indeed, impossible not to participate in the exultation which a capital and a country

so long oppressed, must have experienced at the extinction of this detestable and justly-dreaded prison of state.

With the Bastile expired the despotism of the French princes, which long prescription, submission, and military strength, seemed to render equally sacred and unassailable ; which neither the calamities of the close of Lewis XIV.'s reign, the profligacy and enormities of the succeeding regency, nor the state of degradation into which the monarchy sunk under Lewis XV., had ever shaken : that power, which appeared to derive its support almost as much from the loyalty and veneration, as from the dread and terrors of the subject, fell prostrate in the dust, and never betrayed any symptom of returning life.

The next morning after the capture of the Bastile, the monarch appeared in the national assembly, but without the pomp and parade of despotism. His address was affectionate and consolatory. He lamented the disturbances at Paris ; disavowed all consciousness of any meditated attack on the persons of the deputies ; and added, that he had issued orders for the immediate-removal of the troops from the vicinity of the metropolis. The tear of sympathy started into almost every eye. An expressive silence first pervaded the assembly, which presently was succeeded by a burst of applause and acclamation. On the 16th, the king having intimated to the national assembly his intention of visiting Paris the following day, he accordingly, on the morning of the 17th, left Versailles in a plain dress, and with no other equipage than two carriages with eight horses each, in the first of which he rode himself. A part of the national assembly in their robes accompanied him on foot ; and the militia of Versailles composed his only guard till the procession arrived at Seve, where they were relieved by the Paris militia, with the marquis de la Fayette at their head : and from this place the suite of the monarch amounted to about 20,000 men. The progress was remarkably slow ; and no shout was to be heard but *Vive la Nation !* M. Bailly, on presenting the keys of the city, addressed his majesty in a short speech, the exordium of which was—" These, Sir, are the keys which were presented to Henry IV. He came to re-conquer his people ; it is our happiness to have re-conquered our king." On receiving the complimentary addresses of the mayor, &c. the king exclaimed, with an air of pathetic emotion which scarcely allowed him utterance, " My people may always rely upon my affection." He received from the hands of the mayor the national cockade ; and when he shewed himself at the window with this badge of patriotism, the joy of the people could

could no longer be restrained; the shout of *Vive la Roi!* which had scarcely been heard in the former part of the day, filled the whole atmosphere, and resounded from one extremity of the city to the other. The return of the king to Versailles was a real triumph. The citizens, almost intoxicated with joy, surrounded his carriage: his countenance, which in the morning bore the aspect of melancholy, was now cheerful and smiling; and he appeared sincerely to partake of the general satisfaction.

The events that followed, are, by the candid of all parties, allowed to be enveloped in an almost impenetrable veil of obscurity. An incident which occurred at Versailles contributed to excite a most unhappy commotion. On the 1st of October, an entertainment was given by the *gardes-du-corps*, or king's body-guards, to the officers of a regiment of Flanders, who had just joined them in the service of guarding the monarch. Several of the officers of the national guard, with others of the military, were invited. At the second course four toasts were given—"the king, the queen, the dauphin, and the royal family." "The nation" was proposed, but, according to a number of witnesses, expressly rejected by the *gardes-du-corps*. After this, the queen having been informed of the gaiety of the scene, persuaded his majesty, who was just returned from hunting, to accompany her, with the heir apparent, to the saloon. She appeared with the dauphin in her arms, affectionate as she was lovely, and carried the royal infant through the saloon, amidst the acclamations and murmurs of the spectators. Fired with enthusiasm, the soldiers drank the health of the king, the queen, and the dauphin, with their swords drawn; and the royal guests bowed respectfully and retired.

The entertainment, which had hitherto been conducted with some degree of order, now became a scene of entire confusion. Nothing was omitted to inflame the passions of the military. The music played the favourite air—"O Richard, O my king, the world abandons thee!" the ladies of the court distributed *white cockades*, the anti-patriot ensign; and even some of the national guard, it is said, did not refuse to accept them.

During these transactions, the city of Paris was afflicted with all the evils of famine. At this juncture the news arrived of the fatal banquet at Versailles, with every circumstance greatly magnified. Early on the morning of the memorable 5th of October, a woman sallied out from the quarter of St. Eustache, and entering the *corps-de-garde*, and seizing a drum, paraded the adjacent streets, beating an alarm, and exciting the people by clamours respecting the

scarcity of bread. She was soon joined by a very numerous mob, chiefly of women, to the amount of 800, who proceeded to Versailles; where the king, upon hearing their complaints, signed an order for bringing corn from Senlis and Lagny, and for removing every obstacle which impeded the supply of Paris. This order was reported to the women, and they retired with gratitude and joy.

This band of Amazons was no sooner dispersed, than it was succeeded by another. The national assembly continued sitting; but the session was tumultuous, and interrupted by the shouts and harangues of the Parisian fish-women, who filled the galleries: their applause was mingled with affecting murmurs and complaints—the multitude crying out that they were actually starving, and that the majority of them had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The president, therefore, humanely ordered that provisions should be sought for in every part of the town; and the hall of the assembly was the scene of a miserable, scanty, and tumultuous banquet. Indeed, such was the dreadful famine, that the horse of one of the *gardes-du-corps* being killed in a tumult, it was immediately roasted, and greedily devoured by the mob.

Darkness and a deluge of rain added to the horrors of the night. The wretched multitudes who had travelled from Paris, were exposed, almost famished, to the inclemencies of the weather, in the open streets: within the castle all was trepidation; nothing was to be heard from without but imprecations, and the voices of enraged multitudes demanding the life of the queen and the *gardes-du-corps*. Towards midnight, however, all appeared tolerably still and peaceable; when the beating of drums, and the light of innumerable torches, announced the approach of the Parisian army.

The day began to break at about half past five; and at this period crowds of women, and other desperate persons, breathing vengeance, and thirsting for blood, advanced to the castle, which, in an hour of fatal security, was left unguarded in several places. An immense crowd found its way into every part. The queen had been awakened, a quarter of an hour before, by the clamours of the women who had assembled upon the terrace; but her waiting-woman had satisfied her, by saying, "that they were only the women of Paris, who, she supposed, not being able to find a lodging, were walking about. But the tumult approaching, and becoming apparently more serious, she rose, dressed herself in haste, and ran to the king's apartment by a private passage. In her way she heard the noise of a pistol and a musquet, which redoubled her

terror. "My friend," said she to every person she met, "save me and my children!" In the king's chamber she found the dauphin, who had been brought thither by one of her women; but the king was gone. Awakened by the tumult, he had seen from a window the multitude pressing towards the stair-case; and, alarmed for the queen, he hastened to her apartment, and entered at one door at the moment she had quitted it by the other. He returned without loss of time; and having, with the queen, brought the princess-royal into the chamber, they prepared to face the multitude.

In the mean time the noise and tumult increased, and appeared at the very door of the chamber. Nothing was to be heard but the most dreadful exclamations, with violent and repeated blows against the outer door, a pannel of which was broken; and instant death was expected by the royal company. Suddenly, however, the tumult seemed to cease; every thing was quiet, and a moment after, a gentle rap was heard at the door. The door was opened, and in an instant the apartments were filled with the Parisian guard. The officer who conducted them, ordered them to ground their arms. "We come," said he, "to save the king;" and turning to such of the *gardes-du-corps* as were in the apartments, "We will save you also, gentlemen; let us from this moment be united."

The royal family now ventured to shew themselves at the balcony, and received the most lively acclamations of respect from the soldiers and the people. A single voice, or a few voices, exclaimed—"The king to Paris!" and this was instantly followed by an universal acclamation, enforcing the same demand. The king addressed them:—"You wish me to go to Paris:—I will go, on the condition that I am to be accompanied by my wife and children."—He was answered by reiterated acclamations of "*Vive le Roi!*" It was two in the afternoon before the procession set out. During the progress all was gaiety and joy among the soldiers and spectators; and such was the respect in which the French nation still held the name and person of their king, that the multitude were superstitiously persuaded that the royal presence would actually put an end to the famine. On his arrival, the king was congratulated by the municipality, and declared his approbation of the loyalty which the city of Paris manifested.

The spirit of the nation was so entirely averse from the principles of the high aristocratic party, that numbers of them, particularly the king's two brothers, and some of the first rank and fortune, took refuge in foreign countries, where they applied themselves indefatigably

to the purpose of exciting war against their country.

Great preparations were made for the celebration of a grand confederation, in which the representatives of the nation, the king, the soldiery, and all who were in ostensible situations, should solemnly, and in the face of the whole nation, renew their oaths of fidelity to the new constitution; and this confederation was decreed to take place on the 14th of July, 1790, in honour of the taking of the Bastile, and of the establishment of Gallic liberty. The *Champ de Mars*, so famous for having been the rendezvous of the troops, which, in the preceding year, were intended to over-awe the capital, was chosen for this solemnity. This piece of ground, which is about 400 toises, or 800 yards, in diameter, is bounded on the right and left by lofty trees, and commands, at the further extremity, a view of the Military Academy. In the middle of this vast plain, an altar was erected for the purpose of administering the civic oath; and round it an immense amphitheatre was thrown up, of a league in circumference, and capable of containing 400,000 spectators. The entrance was through triumphal arches. The king's throne was placed under an elegant pavilion in the middle, and on each side of it were seats for the members of the national assembly.

The important 14th of July at length arrived. The national guards of the departments, distinguished by their respective standards, the battalions of infantry, and the different troops of cavalry, the marine of France, and the foreigners who served under its banners, being arranged in military order, the king and the national assembly took a solemn oath to maintain the constitution; the armed citizens repeated it, amongst the applause of innumerable spectators. They swore to live free, or die; and this oath was taken on the same day through the whole extent of the kingdom.

The escape of the king and queen, with their infant children, and monsieur and madame, on the 20th of June, 1791, menaced France with the convulsions of anarchy, and the horrors of civil war. The route of the royal fugitives, which had been expected to have been towards the Austrian Netherlands, the nearest frontier of the kingdom, was in fact directed towards Metz; from the presence of so gallant and accomplished a royalist as M. de Bouillé in that quarter, from its vicinity to the prince of Condé's army in Germany, and from the probable reluctance of Leopold to hazard the tranquillity of the Netherlands, by permitting any incursion from them into France. They reached St. Menchold, a small town, about 150 miles from Paris. The king

was there recognised by the postilion, who said to him, "*Mon roi, je vous connois, mais je ne vous trahirai pas.*"—"I know you, my king, but I will not betray you." But the post-master, M. Drouet, less full of monarchic prejudice, adopted a different conduct. He avoided, with great dexterity and presence of mind, betraying his knowledge of the rank of the royal travellers, being much struck with the resemblance which his majesty's countenance bore to the effigy on an assignat of fifty livres. The carriages taking the road to Varennes, he went a cross road to rejoin them; and arriving before them at Varennes, he alarmed the town, and assembled the national guards, who, notwithstanding the detachment of hussars by which they were escorted, disarmed them, and the king was then *made a prisoner*; and at six o'clock in the afternoon of the 25th of June, their majesties, with the dauphin and madame royale, arrived at the Tuileries.

The new constitution was presented to the king on the 3d of September, 1791; who, on the 13th, signified his acceptance of it in writing; and the following day appeared in the assembly, introduced by a deputation of sixty members, and solemnly consecrated the assent which he had already given, and concluded with an oath "to be faithful to the nation and to the law, and to employ the powers vested in him for the maintenance of the constitution, and the due execution of the law." Soon after this, the second national council assembled, with abilities far inferior to the first.

The dubious and undecided conduct of the emperor, and the refuge and protection found in the German empire by the emigrant princes, excited France to vigorous resolutions; and a manifesto, addressed to all states and nations, made its appearance. The forcible measures pursued, had the effect of intimidating the German princes; and the emigrants were constrained to an ignominious dispersion from the frontiers. But the protection of the emperor and the Prussian king afforded them asylums more remote and less obtrusive. Irresolution seemed to preside in the councils of the emperor; a monarch more eminent for the mild virtues of peace, than for the exertions of war. He had acknowledged the national flag; he had declared that he regarded the king of the French as absolutely free; while the league of Pilnitz (which, as was avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intended to secure Germany from such a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguish the dreaded source), and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were infallible proofs that the emperor could not be regarded as a

friend. His sudden death on the 1st of March, 1792, excited great consternation among the aristocrats, and afforded joy and exultation to the supporters of the constitution. Another event, no less unexpected, happened in the death of the Swedish monarch, on the 29th of the same month; and the superstitious vulgar imagined that they beheld the peculiar protection of heaven, in the removal of the two chief foes of France in so short a time.

In the progress of the negotiation between the national assembly and the court of Vienna, the young king of Hungary, excited by the influence of Prussia, began to exhibit more enmity, and to use severer language. At length, on April 5, M. de Noailles, in his dispatches to the French minister for foreign affairs, explained the propositions of the imperial court; that satisfaction should be given to the German princes, proprietors of Alsace; that Avignon, which had been appropriated by France, should be restored to the pope; and that the internal government of France should be invested with sufficient efficiency, that the other powers might have no apprehensions of being troubled by France. These terms produced a declaration of war against Francis I., king of Hungary and Bohemia; decreed by the assembly, and ratified by the French king, on the 24th of April.

The first movement of the French was stained with defeat, and with the unpropitious murder of Theobald Dillon, their leader, who fell a prey to the suspicious and savage ferocity of some of his soldiers, who fled from the enemy, but attacked their general. The court of Vienna had, in the beginning of July, published a declaration, explaining the cause of the war, and retorting on the French nation some of the heavy charges contained in its declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, afterwards emperor of Germany. On the 26th of the same month, the Prussian monarch issued a concise exposition of the reasons which determined him to take up arms against France. He pleaded his alliance with the emperor; and that, as sovereign of a German state, he was bound to interfere, to prevent the violation of the rights of the German princes of Alsace and Lorraine, and the invasion of the territories of others: and he concluded, by honestly avowing, that it was his intention to repress the too great liberty of France, which might afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries. At the same time the duke of Brunswick, general of the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, published, at Coblentz, a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the most haughty and presumptuous terms: he declared his intention of putting a
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stop to the anarchy which prevailed in France, and of restoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards says his design was not to interfere in the internal government. It is unnecessary to dwell on the other parts of this insolent memorial, in which France was already regarded as a conquered country; and directions were given to the magistrates, national guards, and inhabitants at large; but the threat that the city of Paris should be given up to military execution, in case the least outrage should be offered to the king, queen, or royal family, is worthy of a Hun.

The excesses of the night between the 9th and 10th of August, we relate with pain. At midnight the alarm-bell sounded in every quarter of Paris, the *générale* was beat, and the citizens flew to arms. The palace of the Tuilleries was attacked by the multitude; and the king, queen, and royal family were forced to take refuge in the national assembly. At first the Swiss guards, who were obnoxious to the people, and had been ineffectually proscribed by repeated decrees of the assembly (the king not being allowed to have a foreign guard), repelled the populace; but these being reinforced by the Marseillois, and federates from Brest (bodies which the Jacobins seem to have brought to Paris to balance the Swiss), and by national guards, the gates of the palace were burst open. The artillery joined the assailants. The consequences were, that, after a slaughter of about four hundred^{on} on each side, the Swiss guards were exterminated, and the palace ransacked.

The month of September seemed pregnant with the total ruin of French freedom; while the three following months reversed the scene, and exhibited a tide of success on the part of France, perhaps unexampled in modern history. It is with infinite concern that we direct the attention of our readers to the prison scene, which occurred on the 2d and 3d of September. The horrid massacre of the defenceless prisoners, and other aristocrats, which took place at that period, is an eternal disgrace to the Parisian populace; who, in their fury, spared not even that gentle sex which all civilized nations hold in the highest respect. The number of the slain has, doubtless, been exaggerated, as usual; yet, supposing that, by the most moderate account, only 2000 perished, the enormity of the deed remains the same. Some extenuation might be offered for the affair of the 10th of August, in which a peo-

ple, who supposed themselves betrayed to slavery and all its evils, so recently experienced and shaken off, assumed their revenge and their cause into their own hands; but no defence can be offered for this unnecessary crime. Had the combined armies besieged Paris, it is difficult to conceive what aid they could have found from two or three thousand aristocrats, and many of these secured in chains.

A national convention had been called, to determine on the charges brought against the king. They met on the 24th of September; and on the first day of the meeting, the abolition of royalty in France was decreed by acclamation; and the following day it was ordered that all public acts should be dated "the first year, &c. of the French republic." But hardly was this convention constituted, when a violent faction appeared, headed by Marat*, Robespierre, and others, who repeatedly degraded its transactions by their fanaticism; and being supported by the Jacobins and Parisian populace, proved too powerful for the convention to punish, or to restrain as it wished. Repeated instances have proved that the convention was not free, but must vote as the mob of Paris dictated; the moderation of the members being often obliged to yield to the indecent applauses and hisses of the galleries.

So rapid was the progress of the French arms, and so great were the distresses of the combined armies, arising from a scarcity of provisions, from a long rainy season, and from a considerable mortality among the Prussians, by the French accounts, estimated at one half, that the Prussians retreated from the dominions of France, whose example the Austrians soon followed.

Even at the very time that Paris was in the greatest danger, the invasion of Savoy was ordered. On the 21st of September, General Montesquiou entered the Savoyard territories, seized on the frontier posts and castles, and two days after took Montmelian. Chamberry and all Savoy soon followed; but the conquest not being resisted, was productive of no military glory. The imprudence of the national convention, in permitting Savoy to incorporate itself with France, has excited wonder. After frequent declarations, that the French would enter into no war with any view to conquest, their conduct in this respect was absurd and impolitic. It subjected them to the merited reproach, that, under the pretence of liberty, they maintained the de-

* Marat fell by the hands of female vengeance. Marie Ann Charlotte Cordey, strongly impressed with the calamities which he had brought upon her country, took a journey to Paris, in July 1793, on purpose to put a period to his existence. Meeting Marat as he was coming from the bath, and entering into conversation with him (the more certainly to identify his person), she plunged a dagger into his breast; upon which he fell, and soon expired. Glorifying in having exterminated a monster, she delivered herself up to the officers of justice; and, with the utmost firmness, submitted to her fate, in having her head severed by the guillotine, in the 25th year of her age.

structive maxims of their ancient government; and that their wishes to increase their territory, perhaps to subjugate Europe, remained the same. Admiral Triguët, commanding a squadron in the Mediterranean, captured Nice, Villa Franca, and the fortress of Montalban, belonging to the king of Sardinia.

The subjection of Savoy was regarded as a trifle; but when Custine began his acquisitions in Germany, every eye was turned to the rapidity and importance of his progress, till diverted by the wonders of Dumouriez. Spire yielded to the French arms on the 30th of September, and Worms soon after followed; ample supplies of provisions and ammunition were found in these cities. Custine pursuing his course along the left bank of the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards Franckfort. He was eager to proceed to Coblenz, that noted seat of the counter-revolutionists; but the Prussians and Austrians at length indicated a renewal of hostilities by garrisoning that town, and encamping in the adjacent country.

The conquest of the Austrian Netherlands forms the next grand object. Dumouriez had promised to pass his Christmas at Brussels; and what was regarded as an idle vaunt, proved very modest; for that city was in his hands by the 14th of November. That able general, having entered the Netherlands on the first or the second of that month, with an army of forty thousand men, afterwards much increased, and a most formidable train of artillery, repeated engagements with the Austrian army, commanded by the duke of Saxe-Teschen, governor of the Austrian Netherlands, and by general Beaulieu, which however exceeded not twenty thousand, occupied the first five days. At length, on the 6th of November, a great battle was fought at Jemappe, which decided the fate of the Netherlands. The contest was very general; all the points of the enemy's flanks and lines were attacked at once; all the bodies of the French were in action, and almost every individual fought personally. The cannonade began at seven in the morning; Dumouriez ordered the village of Carignoc to be attacked, because he could not attempt the heights of Jemappe, till he had taken that village; at noon the French infantry formed in columns, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the bayonet. After an obstinate defence, the Austrians at two o'clock retired in the utmost disorder.

Dumouriez immediately advanced, and took possession of the neighbouring town of Mons, where the French were received as brethren. The tidings arriving at Brussels, the court was struck with an indescribable panic; and instantly

fled to Ruremond, whence it was again to be driven by the arms of Miranda. Tournay surrendered to a detachment on the 8th of November. Dumouriez, having refreshed his troops at Mons, advanced to Brussels, where, after an indecisive engagement between his van and the Austrian rear, he was received with acclamations on the 14th of that month. Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Malines (or Mechlin), Louvain, Ostend, Namur, and, in short, all the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxemburg, successively followed the example of the capital; and the conquests of Lewis XIV. were not more rapid.

Many of the priests who were banished, came to England, and were received with great benevolence: this was followed by the decree of the national convention against the emigrants, by which they were declared dead in law, their effects confiscated, and themselves adjudged to immediate death, if they appeared in France.

Another decree, of the 19th of November, attracted the attention of every nation in Europe. It is in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity and assistance to all those people who wish to procure liberty; and they charge the executive power to send orders to the generals to give assistance to such people, and to defend citizens who have suffered, or are now suffering, in the cause of liberty." This decree, and others of a similar tendency, seemed to institute a political crusade against all the powers of Europe.

No sooner had Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than, in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt (shut up by the treaty of Munster, in 1648) was projected and ordered; notwithstanding this treaty, so far as respects the shutting up of the navigation of this river, had been confirmed to the Dutch in succeeding treaties, guaranteed both by the courts of Versailles and London. The Dutch regarded this measure as injurious to their trade; for Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amsterdam. The infraction of this treaty was one of the reasons which induced the parliament of Great Britain to oppose the unwarrantable pretensions of the French.

The memorable trial of the king commenced on the 11th of December. The issue is too well known. The firmness of this unfortunate monarch during his trial, and at the place of execution, on the 21st of January, 1791, increased the commiseration of every indifferent spectator; and callous indeed must be the person who does not partake of the sympathy which was felt through all Europe upon this transaction.

It would be a tedious and disagreeable undertaking.

taking to trace minutely and gradually the progress of the dispute between France and England. Without affixing any degree of credit to the reports that Great Britain had early, but secretly, acceded to the concert of princes, and the treaty of Pilnitz, it is natural to believe that the British ministry had long viewed with a jealous eye the progress of the French revolution towards a turbulent democracy. We must, however, do the French nation the justice to confess, that the unanimous voice of that people was clamorous from the first for peace and alliance with England. A series of events changed this inclination. A bill for forcibly transporting aliens out of the kingdom, was introduced into parliament. The ports of Great Britain were shut against the exportation of corn to France, while it was permitted to her enemies. In the end, the ambassador of the republic, M. Chauvelin, was ordered, under the authority of the alien bill, at a short notice, out of the kingdom; immediately after which dismission, the convention declared that the French republic was at war with the king of England, and the stadtholder of the United Provinces.

In consequence of these measures, General Dumouriez proceeded with a large body of troops to invade Holland; exhorting the Batavians, in a violent manifesto, to reject the tyrannic aristocracy of the stadtholder and his party, and to become a free republic. The Dutch made preparations for defending themselves; and the English cabinet seconded their efforts, by an immediate embarkation of troops, to the command of which the duke of York was appointed.

The subjugation of Holland was the first project of General Dumouriez: and when the ease with which he had effected the conquest of the Netherlands, and the courage and ability displayed by him and his army at the famous battle of Jemappe, were considered, there seemed reason to apprehend that he would soon make an impression on these provinces; and the easy surrender of Breda and Gertruydenburg, encouraged him to boast that he would terminate the contest by a speedy approach to Amsterdam. Certain events, however, ensued, which effectually prevented the performance of this promise.

General Miranda, who had besieged the city of Maestricht, and summoned the governor to surrender, was attacked by prince Frederic of Brunswick, and defeated with considerable loss. The Austrians, after this, divided themselves into three columns, two of which marched towards Maestricht, and the siege of that place was immediately raised. The third pursued the advanced guard of the republic; and the absence of several commanding officers was supposed to

have greatly facilitated the success of the Prussians in these rencounters.

On the 14th of March, the Imperialists advanced from Tongres towards Tirlemont, by St. Tron; and were attacked by General Dumouriez successively on the 15th and following days. The first attempts were attended with success; the Austrian advanced post were obliged to retire to St. Tron, through Tirlemont, which they had already passed. On the 18th a general engagement took place at Neerwinden; the French army being covered on the left by Dormael, and on the right by Landen. The action continued with great obstinacy on both sides, from seven in the morning till five in the afternoon; when the French were obliged to fall back, and the Austrian cavalry, coming up, put them entirely to flight. The loss in each army was great. The French displayed considerable courage and address; but were overpowered by the superior numbers, and, perhaps, by the more regular discipline of their enemies.

Dumouriez was now suspected of treachery; and General Miranda intimated his suspicions, in a confidential letter, to Petion, dated 21st of March. Four commissioners were immediately sent from Paris, with powers to suspend and arrest all generals and military officers whom they should suspect, and bring them to the bar of the convention. These commissioners, on the 1st of April, proceeded to St. Amand, the head-quarters of Dumouriez; and, being admitted to his presence, explained to him the object of their mission. After a conference of some hours, the general, finding that he could not persuade them to favour his intentions, gave the signal for a body of soldiers who were in waiting, and ordered the minister of war, Bournonville, who was sent to supersede him, and the commissioners, Camus, Blancal, La Marque, and Quinette, to be immediately conveyed to General Clairfait's head-quarters at Tournay, as hostages for the safety of the royal family.

Dumouriez, notwithstanding his splendid talents, found himself grossly mistaken with respect to the disposition of his army. They had resented the affront, so imprudently offered to their general; but when he came to explain to them his plan, and propose the restoration of royalty in the person of the prince, they all forsook him; and he was obliged to fly with a very few attendants, making his escape through a dreadful discharge of musquetry, which the whole column poured upon him and his associates.

The latter end of June, and the beginning of July, were chiefly distinguished, in the north, by some petty skirmishes between the two grand armies.

armies. In the latter part of July, the Austrians obtained some successes of more importance. The garrison of Condé, after sustaining a blockade of three months, surrendered on the 10th by capitulation, to the prince of Cobourg; and Valenciennes, on the 20th of the same month, to the duke of York, not without some suspicions of treachery in both cases.

Encouraged by these successes, a large detachment from the combined army, under the command of the duke of York, proceeded, without loss of time, to attack the port and town of Dunkirk. On the 22d of August, the duke of York marched from Furnes to attack the French camp at Ghivélde, which was abandoned at his approach; and he was almost immediately enabled to take the ground which it was his intention to occupy during the siege. On the 24th, he attacked the outposts of the French, who, with some loss, were driven into the town. In this action, the famous Austrian general, Dalton, and some other officers of note, were killed. The succeeding day, the siege might be said regularly to commence. A considerable naval armament from Great Britain was to have co-operated in the siege; but, by some neglect, Admiral Macbride was not able to sail so early as was expected. In the mean time, the hostile army was extremely harassed by the gun-boats of the French; a successful sortie was effected by the garrison on the 6th of September; and the French collecting in superior force, the duke of York, on the 7th, after several severe actions, in which the allied forces suffered very considerably, was compelled to raise the siege, and leave behind him his numerous train of artillery. General Houchard was afterwards impeached by the convention, and beheaded, for not having improved his success to the best advantage; as it was asserted that he had it in his power to capture almost the whole of the duke of York's army.

The disaffection of the southern provinces of France was at this time productive of serious dangers to the new republic. It is well known that the deputies and people of these provinces were among the most active to promote the dethroning of the king on the 10th of August, 1792. It is therefore somewhat extraordinary, that the same men should be among the first to rebel against the authority of the convention. The formidable union which took place, under the name of *federate republicanism*, between the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon, in the course of the months of June and July, seemed to threaten almost the dissolution of the existing authorities. A considerable army was, however, dispatched against Lyons; and the city closely besieged. The Marseillois, in the mean time,

opened their gates on the approach of the republican army, and submitted: but the people of Toulon entered into a negotiation with the English admiral, Lord Hood, who was then cruising in the Mediterranean; and he took possession both of the town and shipping, in the name of Lewis XVII., and under the positive stipulation that he should assist in restoring the constitution of 1789.

Among the victims of popular resentment, who fell about this period, was the celebrated General Custine, whose former services, whatever might have been his subsequent demerits, ought to have secured him more lenient treatment. He was recalled to Paris, from the command of the northern army, in the beginning of July; and, on the 22d, committed, under a decree of the convention, a prisoner to the Abbey. He was tried by the revolutionary tribunal; and accused of having maintained an improper correspondence with the Prussians while he commanded on the Rhine, and of having neglected various opportunities of throwing reinforcements into Valenciennes. It is needless to say that he was found guilty; to be suspected was then to be condemned: and the populace of Paris, now accustomed to such scenes, beheld the sacrifice of their former defender with calm indifference, or with blind exultation.

The trial and condemnation of the queen immediately followed that of General Custine. She was removed, on the night of the 1st of August, from the Temple, to a small and miserable apartment in the prison of the Conciergerie, where she remained till she was brought before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 15th of October. The act of accusation consisted of several charges, many of which were frivolous and incredible, and few of them appeared to be sufficiently substantiated by evidence; but had the conduct of Marie Antoinette been more unexceptionable than there is reason to believe it was, it is not very probable that she would have escaped. After an hour's consultation, therefore, the jury brought in their verdict—"Guilty of all the charges."

The queen heard the sanguinary sentence with dignity and resignation; perhaps indeed it might be considered by her less as a punishment than as a release. On the 16th of October, at about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, she was conducted in a coach from the prison of the Conciergerie, to a scaffold prepared in the Place de la Revolution, where her unfortunate husband had previously suffered. The people who crowded the streets as she passed, exhibited no marks of pity or compunction; and her behaviour, as her last sufferings approached, was decent and composed. She met her fate in the thirty-eighth year of her age.

Soon

Soon after the convention had brought the queen to the scaffold, they entered upon the trial of Brissot and his supposed accomplices. Brissot was charged with having said and written, at the commencement of the revolution, that Fayette's retiring from the public service was a national misfortune; with having distinguished himself three times in the Jacobin club by speeches, of which one provoked the ruin of the colonies, another the massacre of the patriots in the Champ de Mars, and the third the war against Austria.

Upon these and other vague accusations, Brissot, and twenty-one more of the convention, were brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, on the 24th of October. A few days afterwards, the jury declared all the accused members to be accomplices in a conspiracy which had existed against the unity and indivisibility of the French republic; and the tribunal immediately condemned them all to the punishment of death. Valazé, after he had heard his sentence, stabbed himself; and the remaining twenty-one were executed on the 30th of October.

The wretched and profligate Egalité (*ci-devant* duc d'Orleans), who had voted for the death of the king, was soon after brought to the block, with the highest marks of insult from the surrounding multitude, and with the most unequivocal signs of contempt from the nations of Europe.

The catalogue would be disgusting and even tedious, were we to specify all the judicial murders that have since succeeded. Surely those who contend for freedom and the rights of man, ought to include among them the most sacred of duties—humanity; and ought ever to hold sacred the golden maxim—"That it is better ten guilty persons should escape, than one innocent man perish." But, alas! the French convention, and the revolutionary tribunal were not CHRISTIANS.

In the south of France, neither the exertions of the allies, nor the surrender of the Toulonese, were sufficient to produce the expected consequence of establishing a monarchical government. On the 30th November, the garrison of Toulon made a vigorous *sortie*, in order to destroy some batteries which the French were erecting on certain heights within cannon-shot of the city. The detachment sent for this purpose accomplished it; and the French troops were surprised, and fled. The allies, too much elated with their success, pursued the fugitives till they unexpectedly encountered a considerable force, which had been sent to cover their retreat. At this moment, General O'Hara, commander in chief at Toulon,

came up; and while he was exerting himself to bring off his troops with regularity, received a wound in his arm, and was made prisoner by the republicans. Near a thousand of the British and allied forces were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners, on this occasion.

Soon after the capture of the British general O'Hara, the city of Toulon was evacuated by the allies. On the morning of the 19th of December, the attack began before all the republican forces had time to come up. It was chiefly directed against an English redoubt (Fort Mulgrave), defended by more than three thousand men, twenty pieces of cannon, and several mortars. This formidable post was attacked about five o'clock in the morning, and at six the republican flag was flying upon it.

The town was then bombarded from noon till ten o'clock the same night; when the allies, and part of the inhabitants, having first set fire to the town and shipping, precipitated their flight. Two chaloupes, filled with fugitives, were sunk by the batteries. The precipitation with which the evacuation was effected, caused a great part of the ships and property to fall into the hands of the French, and was attended with the most melancholy consequences to the wretched inhabitants, who, as soon as they observed the preparations for flight, crowded to the shores, and demanded the protection which had been promised them on the faith of the British crown. A scene of confusion, riot, and plunder, ensued; and, though great efforts were made to convey as many as possible of the people into the ships, thousands were left to all the horrors of falling into the hands of their enraged countrymen. Many of them plunged into the sea, and made a vain attempt to swim on board the ships; others were seen to shoot themselves on the beach, that they might not endure the greater tortures they might expect from the republicans. During all this, the flames were spreading in every direction; and the ships that had been set on fire were threatening every instant to explode, and blow all around them into the air. This is but a faint description of the scene on shore, and it was scarcely less dreadful on board the ships; loaded with the heterogeneous mixture of nations; with aged men and infants, as well as women; with the sick from all the hospitals, and with the mangled soldiers from the posts just deserted, their wounds still undrest. Nothing could equal the horrors of the sight; except the still more appalling cries of distraction and agony that filled the ear, for husbands, fathers, and children, left on shore.

In the latter end of March, the party called the Hebertists, consisting of Hebert, Momoro, Vincent,

cent; and some others, were arrested, brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, and twenty of them executed. A few days after, the celebrated Danton, Fabre d'Eglantine, Bazire, Chabot, and others, were arrested as conspirators against the republic, tried in a very summary way, and sentenced to death; which sentence was executed on the 5th of April, 1794.

In consequence of these executions, the government of France, however nominally republican, became almost entirely vested in one man, the usurper Robespierre; a name which will probably be transmitted with infamy to the latest posterity. Under his sanguinary administration, the prisons of Paris, at one time, contained between seven and eight thousand persons. Of the number of those tried and executed, we have no precise account; but they in general appeared rather to be sacrificed in multitudes to a jealous and cowardly cruelty, than condemned with even the shadow of justice. In one of these barbarous slaughters, the princess Elizabeth, the sister of the late unfortunate monarch, having been condemned on the most frivolous pretexts, was executed the last of twenty-six persons who were carried to the scaffold on the same day.

But after the death of Danton, the fall of this tyrannical demagogue rapidly approached. A strong party was secretly formed against him in the convention, headed by Tallien, Legendre, and some others. Finding themselves sufficiently strong, Tallien moved the arrest of Robespierre and his creatures; which decree was passed with applauses from every quarter. The president then ordered one of the ushers of the hall to take Robespierre into custody; but such was the awe which the presence of this man was accustomed to inspire, that the officer hesitated to do his duty; till Robespierre himself made a sign of obedience, and followed the usher out of the hall. The prisoners were conducted by a few peace-officers to the prison of the Luxemburg; but the administrator of the police on duty there, who was one of their creatures, refused to receive them; and they were then led, rather in triumph than as prisoners, to the Hôtel de Ville.

In the mean time Henriot, another leader of the party, had also been arrested, but found means to escape and raise his partisans, who took post with him and Robespierre in the Hôtel de Ville, where they pretended to form themselves into a new convention, and declared the other representatives traitors to their country. The people, however, did not espouse their cause; the national guard, who had at first obeyed their orders with reluctance, forsook them; and the deputies who had been dispatched for that purpose, attacked them in the Hôtel de Ville. Bour-

don de l'Oise, after having read the proclamation of the convention, rushed into the hall of the commune, with a sabre and pistols; the insurgents were completely deserted, and now endeavoured to turn their arms against themselves. Robespierre the elder discharged a pistol into his mouth; which, however, failed of its effect, and only wounded him in the jaw, while he received another wound from a gens-d'arme in the side. The younger Robespierre threw himself out of a window, and broke a leg and an arm; Le Bas shot himself upon the spot; Couthon stabbed himself twice with a knife; and Henriot was thrown out of a window.

The prisoners were immediately conveyed before the revolutionary tribunal; and their persons being indentified, they were condemned to suffer death in the Place de la Revolution, where the two Robespierres, and nineteen others, were executed at seven in the evening of the 28th of July, 1794.

In the campaign of this year, the arms of the new republic were successful on every side against the allies. In Flanders, General Jourdan gained the battle of Fleurus; and Charleroi, Ypres, Bruges, and Courtray, surrendered to the French: Ostend was evacuated; General Clairfait defeated near Mons, which immediately surrendered; and the prince of Cobourg compelled to abandon the whole of the Netherlands, while the victors, without opposition, entered Brussels and Antwerp. Landrecy, Quesnoi, Valenciennes, and Condé, were successively re-taken; and the French armies, pursuing their success, took Ailla-Chapelle, defeated Clairfait near Juliers, and made themselves masters of Cologne and Bonn. Maestricht and Nimeguen were likewise taken.

The United Provinces began now to be seriously alarmed. The states of Friesland were the first to feel their danger; and, in the month of October, these states determined to acknowledge the French republic, to break their alliance with England, and to enter into a treaty of peace and alliance with France. In some of the other provinces, resolutions, hostile to the stadtholder and his government, were likewise passed; and such appeared to be the temper of the people, even at Amsterdam, that on the 17th of October, the government of Holland published a proclamation, prohibiting the presenting of any petition or memorial upon public or political subjects, and all popular meetings or assemblies of the people upon any occasion.

On the 7th of December, the French made a feeble attempt to cross the Waal, but were repulsed with loss; but on the 15th the frost set in with unusual rigour, and opened a new road to the French armies. In the course of a week the Maese and the Waal were both frozen over; and

on the 27th, a strong column of French crossed the Maese, near the village of Driel. They attacked the allied army for an extent of above twelve leagues; and, according to the report of General Pichegru, "were, as usual, victorious in every quarter." The army of the allies retreated before them; and in its retreat endured incredible hardships from the severity of the weather and the want of necessaries. On the 10th of January, 1795, General Pichegru, having completed his arrangements, made his grand movement. The French crossed the Waal at different points, with a force, according to some accounts, of 70,000 men. A general attack was made upon Walmoden's position between Nimeguen and Arnheim. The allies were defeated in every quarter; and, utterly unprepared either for resistance or for flight, suffered equally from the elements and the enemy.

It was in vain that the stadtholder issued manifestoes, proclamations, and exhortations, to the Dutch peasantry, conjuring them to rise in a mass for the defence of the country. The French continued to advance, and the allies to fly before them, till Utrecht surrendered to them on the 16th of January, Rotterdam on the 18th, and Dort on the succeeding day. The utmost consternation now prevailed among the partisans of the stadtholder. The princess of Orange, with the younger and female part of the family, and with all the plate, jewels, and moveables, that could be packed up, escaped on the 15th. The stadtholder and the hereditary prince did not leave Holland till the 19th. His serene highness embarked at Scheveling, in an open boat, with only three men to navigate her, and arrived safe at Harwich, in England. The palace of Hampton-court was assigned him for his residence.

On the 20th of January, General Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph, at the head of 5000 men, and was received by the inhabitants with the loudest acclamations. The whole of the United Provinces either submitted to, or was reduced by, the French, in a few weeks. An assembly of the provisional representatives of the people met on the 27th of January; and the whole government was changed and modelled nearly after the French plan.

In the mean time the king of Prussia, finding he could derive no advantage from the war, began to relax his efforts. The Prussian and Austrian forces, as well as their leaders, were on bad terms with each other; but it was not suspected that any defection was about to take place on the part of the Prussians, till they began to retreat towards the Rhine, which they soon afterwards passed. A negotiation between Prussia and France followed, which ended in a treaty of peace,

signed at Basle, on the 5th of April, 1795, by which his Prussian majesty entirely abandoned the coalition.

The Prussian negotiation was followed by the treaty made between the French republic and Spain, in which country the arms of France had made a progress equally successful and rapid. Fontarabia, which guards the entrance of Spain, and which had cost the duke of Berwick 8000 men, had been taken, almost immediately, by a detachment from the French army: Rosas was likewise taken; and the troops of the republic had made themselves masters of the greater part of the rich provinces of Biscay and Catalonia, and were, in fact, in full march for the capital of the kingdom. Orders were therefore dispatched to M. D'Yriarte, at Basle, immediately to conclude a treaty, which was accordingly signed by the Spanish minister and M. Barthelemi, at Basle, on the 22d of July.

About the middle of this year, died the infant son of the unfortunate Lewis XVI. An unjust and close imprisonment, if it did not produce, at least, it is probable, hastened his fate. He had always been an unhealthy child, and subject to a scrofulous complaint; a disorder in which confinement and inactivity are frequently fatal. For some time previous to his decease, he had been afflicted with a swelling in his knee, and another in his wrist. His appetite failed, and he was at length attacked with a fever. It does not appear that medical aid was denied him, or neglected. The disease, however, continued to increase; and on the morning of the 9th of June, he expired in the prison of the Temple, where he had been confined from the fatal autumn of 1792. Moved, perhaps, by this event, or influenced by the general sympathy of the people of France, the committee of public safety, in the beginning of July, proposed the exchange of the princess, sister of the dauphin (who was likewise a prisoner in the Temple), for the deputies delivered up to Austria by the treachery of Dumouriez, and for the two ambassadors, Semonville and Maret, who had been seized, contrary to the law of nations, on a neutral territory, by an Austrian corps. The emperor, after some hesitation, acceded to the proposal; and before the conclusion of the year, the princess was delivered to the Austrian envoy at Basle, in Switzerland, and the deputies were restored to their country.

In the course of this year, an expedition was planned by the English ministry, to invade the coast of France, in that part where the royalists (known by the name of Chouans) were in arms against the republicans. The force employed consisted chiefly of emigrants, under the command of M. Puisaye, M. d'Hervilly, and the Count de

de Sombreuil. They landed in the bay of Quiberon, and took the fort of the same name; but soon after experienced a sad reverse,—the fort being surprised by the republican troops, under the command of General Hoche, who killed or made prisoners the greater part of the emigrants, Chouans, and English, in the fort, amounting nearly to 10,000 men. The Count de Sombreuil, the bishop of Dol (with his clergy who accompanied him), and most of the emigrant officers, who were made prisoners, were tried by a military tribunal, and put to death. Before the month of April, in the ensuing year (1796), the force of the insurgents in this part of France was entirely broken; and their chiefs, Charette and Stofflet, taken prisoners and put to death.

In Germany, the French army had crossed the Rhine near Mannheim, and blockaded Mentz, to which they had already laid siege for several months. In this attempt, however, they were unsuccessful: they suffered a defeat from the Austrians, and were compelled to repass the river. A suspension of arms, for three months, was soon after agreed to by the generals of the contending armies, which was ratified by the respective powers.

In the succeeding year (1796) the campaign opened in the south, on the 9th of April, when the rapid and signal victories of the republican troops, under the command of the then obscure and little known, but now celebrated Buonaparté (which name he has since chosen to write Bonaparte), ended, in little more than a month, the war with Sardinia. The battles of Mellesimo, Dego, Mondovi, Monte Lermo, and Monte Notte, compelled his Sardinian majesty to accept such terms as the conquerors thought proper to offer; and a treaty of peace, by which he ceded Savoy and Nice to France, was signed on the 17th of May.

Bonaparte pursued his success; and, again defeating Beaulieu, the Austrian general, at the battle of the bridge of Lodi, forced the shattered remains of the Austrian army to retire towards Mantua, pursued by one part of the republican forces; while the remainder entered Milan on the 18th of May without further resistance, and the French armies gained possession of the whole of Lombardy.

The armistice which had been concluded on the Rhine, was afterwards prolonged, but at length declared to be at an end on the 31st of May; when the army of the Sambre and Meuse, under General Jourdan, gaining considerable advantages over the Austrians, advanced into the heart of the empire; while another army, under General Moreau, passed the Rhine at Strasburg, took the fort of Kehl (a post of great importance

on the opposite bank), and, penetrating through Bavaria, nearly to Ratisbon, endeavoured to form a junction with the army of Jourdan. This attempt, however, did not succeed; both armies experienced a reverse of fortune, and were obliged to retreat till they recrossed the Rhine. The situation of General Moreau was highly critical; and his retreat is acknowledged, on all sides, to have been conducted with great military skill. The Archduke Charles, who commanded the Austrian army, followed Moreau in his retreat, and laid siege to the fort of Kehl, which he retook after a most obstinate resistance on the part of the French.

To restore the affairs of Italy, the emperor assembled a new army, composed of the flower of the German troops serving on the Rhine; and gave the command of it to General Wurmser, one of the oldest and ablest of the imperial generals. This force, on its first arrival, was successful; the French were repulsed, defeated, and compelled to raise the siege of Mantua. Bonaparte, however, soon returned to the charge; and, after a series of hotly contested actions, the army of Wurmser was so reduced and harassed, that he was obliged to shut himself up in Mantua, where he was closely besieged by the victors, who at the same time made incursions into the Tyrol, and, by the battle of Roveredo, and the possession of Trent, became masters of the passes that led to Vienna. The Austrians, at the same time, made a great effort, under General Alvinzy, to rescue the gallant Wurmser and his besieged army; but the battle of Arcole completely defeated their design, and Mantua was soon after obliged to surrender.

The victories of Bonaparte compelled the pope, the king of Naples, and the inferior princes of Italy, to conclude such treaties as the French thought proper to dictate. The victors likewise founded a new republic in Italy, at first called the Cispadane, but afterwards the Cisaipine republic, to which they annexed such parts of the papal territory as they judged convenient.

After the taking of Mantua, the victorious Bonaparte penetrated into the Tyrol, and directed his course towards the imperial capital. The Archduke Charles was opposed to him, but was unable to check his progress. The republican armies had at length advanced so near to Vienna, that the utmost alarm and confusion prevailed in that city. The bank suspended its payments; and the emperor was preparing to forsake his capital, and remove to Olmutz. In this critical situation of his affairs, his imperial majesty opened a negotiation with Bonaparte; a short armistice was agreed to; and the preliminaries of peace between the emperor and king

of Hungary, and the French republic, were signed at Leoben, in the month of April, 1797.

In the mean time, a tumult having taken place at Venice, in which a number of the French soldiers were murdered in the hospitals of that city, the French armies on their return abolished the ancient government of Venice, planted the tree of liberty in St. Mark's Place, established a municipality, and proposed to annex the city and territory to the new Cisalpine republic. But the conclusion of the definitive treaty of peace with the emperor being protracted on account of the French refusing to restore Mantua, as it is alleged it was stipulated they should, in the preliminaries, they at length agreed to cede to him the city and a part of the territory of Venice, in compensation for Mantua.

The definitive treaty of peace between France and the emperor was signed at Campo Formio, on the 17th of October, 1797. By this treaty the emperor ceded to France the whole of the Netherlands, and all his former territory in Italy. He received in return the city of Venice, Istria, and Dalmatia, and the Venetian islands in the Adriatic: the French were to possess the other Venetian islands.

While the negotiation which terminated in this treaty was carrying on, the disputes of two contending parties were producing a new revolution in France. On the 5th of March, the two councils drew the lots, which deprived one-third of their members of their seats in the legislature, and the new deputies elected in their room took their seats on the 20th of the same month. It soon appeared that the anti-directorial party had received a considerable accession of strength. The conduct of the directory was very freely canvassed; retrenchment of expense in both civil and military offices was proposed; the laws relative to polygamy were ordered to be revised; and the severity of those against priests and emigrants was greatly relaxed. The proceedings of the directory, with respect to the Venetian, Genoese, and Helvetic republics, were severely censured; and it was evident that an open rupture between the directory and the councils was inevitable. Unfortunately for the party in opposition to the directory, the armies took part with the latter. The army of Italy transmitted to the directory a most violent address relative to these disputes, and its example was followed by the other armies of the republic. The opposition party were slow and irresolute in the measures they took for their defence: they probably relied with too much confidence on their supposed strength, as they had a decisive majority in the council of five hundred; and two out of the five directors, Carnot and Barthelemi, were in their

interests. Barras, however, and his party, supported by the armies, resolved on a prompt and violent measure, which effectually decided the contest.

On the morning of the 4th of September, at the early hour of three o'clock, Barras, and the two directors who acted with him, ordered the alarm-guns to be fired, and the halls of the councils to be surrounded with a military force. General Augereau, who was charged with the execution of these orders, repaired to the barracks and addressed the guard of the legislative body, assuring them that he came only to preserve the republic from the conspiracy of royalists. The soldiers declared, with shouts of approbation, that he had only to command, and they were ready to obey. Thus reinforced by the very men to whom alone the councils could look for defence, Augereau entered the hall of the five hundred, and seized Pichegru, the president, with his own hands, and ordered about eighteen others of the most conspicuous characters to be arrested and committed to the Temple. The halls were shut up, and the members of both councils appointed to meet in other places which were pointed out to them. Carnot and Barthelemi were implicated in the fate of their friends in the councils. The former took advantage of the tumult, and fled; the latter calmly awaited the storm, and was put under arrest. Barthelemi, Pichegru, and a number of the deputies, who were seized by Augereau, were transported to Cayenne, whence the two former, and some others, afterwards found means to return to Europe.

The power of the directory, or rather of the party of Barras, being now rendered complete by this decisive victory over the councils, they projected new schemes of ambition and conquest, in order to give employment to the armies, and afford them an opportunity of enriching themselves by plunder. A tumult having taken place at Rome, in which a French general was killed, they subverted the government of that city, deposed the pope, and erected a new republic, which they called the Roman republic. They likewise found a pretext to invade and levy heavy contributions on Switzerland, which they endeavoured to transform into a new republic, under the title of the Helvetic republic, the government of which would, in consequence, be delivered into the hands of their own officers and partisans. Of these invasions the reader will find a further account under the heads of Italy and Switzerland.

In the beginning of the year 1798, a congress of deputies from the states of the German empire met at Rastadt, to negotiate a peace between

tween France and the empire, on the basis of the treaty of Campo Formio. Bonaparte repaired thither, met the assembled plenipotentiaries, and exchanged with Count Meerfeldt the ratification of the treaty of peace with the court of Vienna; after which he returned to Paris, leaving the commissioners, Trilhard and Bonnier, to conduct the negotiations, which were protracted to a great length.

After the conclusion of peace with the emperor, the army became a burden which it was found difficult to support; and though a part of it had been employed in the plundering of Rome, and the oppression of Switzerland, there still remained a large body of troops in a state of inactivity that might ultimately prove dangerous to the government. An immediate invasion of England was therefore announced to be resolved on, and an army collected along the coasts of France opposite to Great Britain, to which was given the pompous title of the "Army of England." Convinced, however, of the impracticability of such an invasion, if ever it were really intended, the project was changed for another, likewise sufficiently absurd, which was an expedition to Egypt, under the command of Bonaparte, and the ultimate object of which, it is believed, was to penetrate, either by the isthmus of Suez, or by the Red Sea, to the Indian Ocean, embark the troops, and, by a co-operation with Tippoo Sultan, endeavour to effect the overthrow of the British empire in the East. While preparations were secretly making for this expedition, the public were amused with strange and monstrous stories of rafts to be constructed for the invasion of England; and troops were collected on the northern coast of France, while the navy of the republic were secretly repairing to Toulon. At length the preparations being completed, Bonaparte embarked on board the fleet, under the command of Admiral Brueys, with about 40,000 men, chiefly the veterans of the Italian army, and sailed from Toulon in the latter end of May. On the 9th of June he arrived off the island of Malta, where he demanded leave to water the fleet, which was refused by the grand-master, in consequence of which the French on the following day landed a body of troops. The little island of Gozzo was taken by one detachment, while the southern parts of Malta were reduced by another. The greater part of the inhabitants took refuge in the garrison, which, however, made but a feeble resistance; the grand-master, on the 11th, agreeing to a capitulation, by which the whole island and its dependencies were surrendered to the French republic.

After leaving a garrison of 4000 men in Malta, Bonaparte proceeded on his voyage about the 21st

of June, and arrived at Alexandria on the 1st of July, having escaped the British squadron which was detached in pursuit of him, under the command of Admiral Nelson. His usual good fortune appeared to attend him in all his first attempts. The town of Alexandria was taken by assault, on the night of the 5th, with the loss of between two and three hundred men; and on the 21st the French army appeared before Cairo, which was defended by Morad Bey with a considerable body of the Mamelukes; but on the 23d it was attacked and carried. The Beys, however, attempted to rally, and collected a formidable force in the neighbourhood of Cairo; but the battle of the pyramids, which was fought on the 26th, rendered the French masters of the greater part of the country. In that engagement, twenty-three Beys, with all the forces they could bring into the field, were completely defeated. Two thousand of the Mamalukes were slain, and four hundred camels with their baggage, and fifty pieces of cannon, were taken, with a very trifling loss on the part of the French.

The conquest of Egypt now appeared to be complete; but on the 1st of August the expedition received a terrible blow in the defeat and destruction of the fleet by Admiral Nelson, of which an account has already been given in our historical summary of the affairs of England. The French land-forces, however, remained in possession of Egypt; and, to secure his conquest, Bonaparte advanced into Syria, where, after gaining some advantages, he received a decisive check before St. John d'Acre. The English squadron under Sir Sidney Smith, intercepted a flotilla which was bringing his battering artillery and ammunition from Egypt; and Sir Sidney acting in concert with the Turks, he was completely repulsed in every assault, and obliged to raise the siege, and retreat back to Egypt with the shattered remains of his army. From Egypt, Bonaparte soon after took an opportunity to make his escape to France, where, as we shall presently see, he became the author of a new and extraordinary revolution in the constitution and government.

The unprincipled attack on Egypt, contrary to the faith of treaties, so incensed the Turks, that they immediately declared war against the French republic; and the emperor of Russia, having accepted a subsidy from Great Britain, entered into a treaty of alliance with the Ottoman Porte and with England, and gave orders for a large body of troops to be raised to act against France. Austria likewise appeared disposed to avail itself of the assistance of this new ally; and the French directory having applied to the emperor for an explanation on this subject, and received

none which they deemed satisfactory, sent orders to General Jourdan to pass the Rhine, with the avowed intention of forcing the diet of Ratisbon to declare against the march of the Russian troops. He executed these orders on the 1st of March 1799; and nearly about the same time, General Bernadotte, at the head of an army of observation, passed the Rhine at Weldeck, invested Philipsburg, and summoned that fortress to surrender; while General Ney sent a similar summons to Mannheim, which immediately opened its gates to him. Yet, notwithstanding these proceedings, the French ambassador declared to the congress of Rastadt, which, though it had sat so long, had as yet come to no conclusion, that these hostile movements were undertaken solely to prevent the interference of the court of Petersburg, and accelerate a general peace. The congress soon after was broken up, and two of the three French plenipotentiaries basely and inhumanly murdered, as they were leaving the town, by some Austrian hussars, or persons who had assumed that disguise.

The cabinet of Vienna being now certain of the aid of Russia, the Austrian army, under the command of the Archduke Charles, passed the Lech, on the 4th of March; and the war, which had so long desolated Europe, was renewed. Fortune, at first, appeared to declare in favour of the French. A body of troops of that nation, advancing through Schaffhausen towards Swabia, were opposed by a detachment of Austrians, whom they defeated, taking the general and three thousand men prisoners. They were also successful for a short time in Italy. Their troops occupied the whole of Tuscany; and the king of Sardinia was reduced, in the month of January, to the cruel necessity of formally renouncing the sovereignty of Piedmont, and retiring with his family and adherents to the island whence he derived his title. The king of Naples likewise, having taken up arms and invaded the Roman republic, after being at first so successful as to obtain possession of Rome, was totally defeated, and obliged to take refuge in the island of Sicily.

But soon after the commencement of hostilities with Austria, the French arms experienced a fatal reverse. On the 25th of March, General Jourdan attacked the Austrians near Stockach, but was defeated, and obliged to retire in disorder; and on the 26th of the same month, General Kray beat the French on the Adige, near Verona, and again defeated them on the 30th. On the 14th of April, Marshal Suwarrow arrived with the first column of the Russian troops, and the successes of the allies became rapid and uninterrupted. On the 24th of the same month the Austrians and Russians passed the Oglio, and

drove the French before them. They then crossed the Adda; and Suwarrow, on the 27th, defeated Moreau at Cassano; and so decisive was his victory, that General Serrurier and 3000 men were taken prisoners, and Milan opened its gates to the conquerors on the 30th. Peschiera was taken on the 6th of May; and, on the 10th, Pizzighetone surrendered to General Kray. On the 12th the Austrians entered Bologna, and took 1200 prisoners; and on the 23d they took possession of Ferrara. In Piedmont, the French, notwithstanding the efforts of Moreau, Macdonald, and Joubert, beheld themselves successively deprived of all their strong holds. The Austrians entered Turin on the 27th of May, and the citadel surrendered on the 20th June. Mantua, after a short siege for so strong a place, surrendered on the 30th of July; the city of Alessandria on the same day: and such was the success of the campaign, that the French were obliged to abandon the whole of Italy—Genoa, and a small portion of the adjoining territory, only excepted. On the 25th of August a desperate battle was fought between the French and the Austrians and Russians at Novi, in the territory of Genoa, in which the French are supposed to have lost not less than 10,000 men; but this victory was purchased with a loss nearly as great on the part of the allies.

On the side of Switzerland, the affairs of the republic at first wore a less disastrous aspect, Massena having obtained some slight advantages. These, however, were soon counterbalanced by events more favourable to the allies: the French general being obliged to abandon Zurich, which was immediately occupied by the Austrian troops under Hotze.

Italy being now rescued from the power of the French, it was resolved that Suwarrow should proceed with his army to Switzerland, to drive the French back into their own territories, and enter France, where he was to endeavour to re-establish the fallen monarchy. The directory were now convinced of their danger, and made every exertion to reinforce their armies in Switzerland, and the most active preparations for a vigorous defence. General Massena, who commanded the republican army in that country, displayed great military genius, and evinced uncommon abilities in all his enterprises. Knowing that if Suwarrow effected a junction with the troops already acting against him, he must be inevitably overpowered, he determined to attack the latter; and in a variety of actions, during four whole days, between the 14th and 20th of September, repeatedly defeated the Austrian and Russian armies—many thousands being killed and taken prisoners, among the former of which was the brave Austrian general Hotze.

Suwarrow,

Suwarrow, in consequence, on his arrival in Switzerland, found it impossible to join his defeated and dispirited allies; his plans were all rendered abortive; he was under the necessity of immediately withdrawing into Germany; and during his retreat over mountains covered with snow, and through roads nearly impassable, he suffered as much loss as could have ensued after a signal defeat.

On the 13th of October, Bonaparte, having found means to escape from Egypt, and elude the vigilance of the British cruisers, arrived in France, accompanied by General Berthier and some other officers. The recent losses which the republic had sustained, and the imminent danger which threatened its very existence, had greatly weakened the authority of the directory, and prepared the way for the total alteration of the constitution and government, which had probably been projected by the abbé Sieyès, and which the popularity and enterprising spirit of Bonaparte enabled him to carry into execution.

The first step towards this revolution was taken by the council of ancients, which on the 9th of November passed a decree consisting of five articles, the chief of which were, that the legislative body should on the next day be removed to St. Cloud; that Bonaparte should be commissioned to carry into execution this decree; and, for this purpose, should be appointed commandant of all the troops in Paris or its neighbourhood, of the guard of the legislative body, of that of the directory, and of the stationary national guard; that this decree should be communicated by message to the council of five hundred, and to the executive directory, and transmitted to all the communes of the republic by extraordinary couriers. After this decree had been passed, the council of ancients proceeded to publish an address to the French nation, justificatory of their own conduct, and asserting "that the common safety, and common prosperity, were the objects of this constitutional measure: the inhabitants of Paris were desired to remain tranquil, since the presence of the legislative body would soon be restored to them, and the result would shew whether the legislative body was worthy and capable of preparing the means of happiness."—General Bonaparte soon after appeared at the bar, accompanied by several officers of his staff, and addressed the council in a short speech, in which he represented that the republic was perishing, and they knew it, but that the decree they had just passed had saved it:—"Yes," said he, "we will have a republic founded on true liberty, and national representation. I swear it in my name, and that of my companions in arms." Most of the members present received these exclamations with ap-

plauses; and the assembly broke up with shouts of "Live the republic!"

On the same day the council of five hundred, having been informed, by a message from the council of ancients, of the decree passed by the latter, adjourned, in consequence, to the following day, when they were to meet at St. Cloud. In the sitting which was held there on the 10th, they appointed a committee of seven members, commissioned to make a report on the situation of affairs. The sitting was very tumultuous, many members exclaiming—"No dictator! No dictatorship!" The secretary read a letter from the director Barras, stating that "the glory which accompanied the return of the illustrious warrior, to whom he had had the happiness to open the career of renown, the distinguished marks of confidence shewn him by the legislative body, and the decree of the national representation, had convinced him that the perils of liberty were then surmounted, and the interest of the armies secured; and that he returned with joy to the rank of a simple citizen, happy to transfer, complete, and render more respectable than ever, the destinies of the republic, of which he had been one of the depositaries."

While some of the members were urging the propriety of choosing another director in the room of Barras, General Bonaparte entered the hall, attended by some officers and grenadiers, and walked up towards the president. A violent agitation immediately ensued among the members, some of whom rushed precipitately from their seats, and endeavoured to seize him by the collar; others cried, "Outlaw him!" and one attempted to stab him with a dagger, but the blow was warded off by a grenadier. The tumult increased to a most violent degree. All the members quitted their seats;—the president, Lucien Bonaparte, laid down his badge of office on the table, and resigned; upon which the doors of the hall were opened, and an officer entered with a guard, exclaiming—"General Bonaparte orders the hall to be cleared." The order was carried into effect in a few minutes.

The sittings were resumed in the evening, and Lucien Bonaparte took the president's chair. A decree was passed, abolishing the directory, and appointing a consular government of three, namely, Sieyès, Bonaparte, and Roger Ducos, who all appeared, and took the oath to be faithful to the republic; after which, the council adjourned its sittings till the 20th of February. On the same day, the council of ancients met also at St. Cloud, the proceedings of which day were almost a copy of those of the council of five hundred. They likewise voted the abolishing of the directory, the appointment of a consular executive of three persons,

sons, and then adjourned till the 20th of February. By the same decrees, sixty-one members were expelled from the legislative body; and thus was the national representation, and the vaunted constitution of the third year, overturned by one man, and the bayonets of a few soldiers.

A new constitution was then formed, which was accepted by the armies, and, apparently at least, by the people. By this constitution, the whole of the executive, and indeed all other power, was vested in the first consul, General Bonaparte, who entered on the administration of his government by making propositions for commencing negotiations for peace. His applications to the government of Great Britain on that subject have been already mentioned in our account of the affairs of England. He afterwards made similar applications to the court of Vienna; but his overtures, which indeed appear to have been sufficiently vague, being rejected by both those powers, the most active preparations were made on all sides for the prosecution of the war.

The last campaign had closed with the taking of Coni, and the retreat of the French army into the territory of Genoa, which was now the only important place in Italy that remained in its possession. The Austrians took the field on the 6th of April 1800; and Massena, who commanded the French army, was attacked by General Melas, and forced to retire to Savona and Vado, whence he was compelled to fall back to Genoa, with the remainder of his army, which consisted of 18,000 men. In Genoa he defended himself during two months with the most determined obstinacy, and did not surrender till every hope of success had vanished, till every kind of provision had been exhausted, till 15,000 inhabitants of the city had perished by famine, and his army was reduced to only 8000 men. Genoa was given up to the Austrians on the 5th of June.

In the mean time Bonaparte, having assembled an army at Dijon, put himself at the head of it on the 6th of May, passed the mountains of St. Gothard and St. Bernard, and, surmounting apparently insuperable obstacles, entered Italy, where he immediately made himself master of Milan, Pavia, Piacenza, Cremona, and the whole course of the Po. The Austrian general Melas appears to have been so confident that it was impossible for an army to enter Italy by the route which the French had taken, that he took no measures to oppose the passage of Bonaparte until it was too late. At length he dispatched General Otto with thirty battalions, to stop the progress of the French army, which was marching towards Piedmont; but that general was defeated at Casteggio, with the loss of 3000 men killed, and 6000 taken prisoners.

This victory was the prelude to the great and decisive battle of Marengo, fought five days afterwards, and which fixed the fate of Italy. Melas, having assembled the whole of his forces, marched to meet his enemy, and took post in the village of Marengo. In the battle which ensued, victory appeared at first to have declared decidedly for the Austrians. The centre of the French was compelled to retreat with great slaughter; but the body of reserve, under General Desaix, impetuously charging the Austrians, who were thrown into some confusion by the eagerness of pursuit, and their confidence that the battle was gained, turned the fortune of the day, and, though Desaix himself fell in the attack, gave the French a complete victory. The Austrians lost, by the French accounts, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, 15,000 men; and the loss of the French could not be much less. Yet so important was this battle in its consequences, that the next day, General Melas, finding his situation no longer tenable, proposed an armistice, which was accepted by Bonaparte, and by which Genoa was immediately surrendered to the French, together with all the strong places of Lombardy and Piedmont.

In Germany, the French had opened the campaign with similar success. They crossed the Rhine in three divisions, at Kehl, Brisac, and Basle, and forced the Austrian army to fall back on the line of Stockach, where a battle took place on the 4th of May, in which the French were victorious, and which in a great degree decided the fate of the campaign, as the Austrians were not able afterwards to make any effectual resistance, but continued to retreat and suffer successive defeats.

When the armistice was concluded in Italy, the Austrian general of the army in Germany endeavoured to avail himself of it, to put an end to the progress of the troops under Moreau; but the French general would not listen to such a proposition: on the contrary, being in possession of Munich, and the greater part of Bavaria, he detached Lecourbe towards the Tyrol, to seize upon the Voralberg and the Grisons, and form a junction with the army of Italy. The offer of a suspension of arms, however, having been repeated, and Count St. Julien having arrived at Paris with proposals for peace, an armistice was at length concluded for the armies in Germany, leaving each in possession of the posts it occupied at the time it was signed.

In the negotiations now carried on at Paris, the court of Vienna intimated that it was bound in honour only to treat for peace in concert with Great Britain. The first consul signified his consent that the negotiations should include a peace with England, but required a naval armistice as a preliminary.

preliminary. This demand, under certain conditions, the British ministry did not reject; but they would not permit the Brest fleet to be supplied with stores, or succours to be sent to the French army in Egypt. This proposal therefore not being accepted, Bonaparte refused to negotiate with England, and the emperor refused to ratify the preliminaries of peace which had been signed by his envoy, Count St. Julien, at Paris.

The rupture of these negotiations was followed by that of the armistice in Germany, which had been renewed by the emperor at the expense of surrendering the important fortresses of Ulm, Ingoldstadt, and Philipsburg, into the hands of the French, as a pledge of his sincere desire for peace. The campaign recommenced on the 24th of November; and in the beginning of December the Austrians were defeated by Moreau in the decisive battle of Hohenlinden, in which the French took 10,000 prisoners, with 80 pieces of cannon. The Archduke Charles was likewise defeated with the loss of 8000 men; and the emperor was convinced that he had no resource but in a peace.

Another armistice was therefore concluded on the 27th of December; and negotiations for peace were opened at Luneville, and carried on with such dispatch, that the preliminary treaty was signed on the 3d of February 1801, by Count Cobentzel and Joseph Bonaparte, and soon after ratified by the emperor. By this treaty the cession of the Belgic provinces to France, as stipulated by the treaty of Campo Formio, was ratified in a more formal manner; and the whole of the country on the left side of the Rhine, the cession of which had been assented to at the congress of Rastadt, was likewise given up to France. The boundaries of the Cisalpine, afterwards called the Italian republic, were enlarged; and the dukes of Tuscany and Modena were compelled to renounce their territories, and accept such indemnities as should be provided for them in Germany.

Of the conclusion of the peace of Amiens between France and England, and the causes of its rupture, a concise account has already been given in our history of England.

As soon as the preliminaries of the latter peace were signed, and the cessation of hostilities with England had left the seas open to the French marine, Bonaparte fitted out a great expedition for St. Domingo, to restore, as he said, the French West India colonies to tranquillity. On board the fleet, and the transports which accompanied it, an army of 25,000 men, the flower of the French soldiery, and completely equipped, was embarked. The famous negro chief, Toussaint l'Ouverture, who was at the head of a formidable body of negroes, was successively defeated, and at

length concluded a capitulation with the French generals; who afterwards seized him, pretending they had discovered that he was engaged in a plot against them, and sent him to France, where he soon ended his days in the dungeon in which he was confined.

Near the termination of 1802, Bonaparte was very active in visiting the sea-ports, where he was received with great magnificence, and the most fulsome addresses were presented to him that were ever bestowed on any mortal. Various conjectures were formed as to the design of these visits, which, it afterwards appeared, were undertaken with a view to increase the French navy, and acquire an intimate knowledge of the different parts of the coast.

On the 21st of February 1803, a view of the state of France was laid before the legislative body, in which Great Britain was charged with acting improperly, in retaining troops in Malta and Egypt after the signing of the definitive treaty. From these and other circumstances it now began to be manifest, that the blessings of peace were not to be long enjoyed; for very soon after a paper was inserted in the *Hamburg Correspondenten*, believed by many to have been the production of Bonaparte, which contained much violent declamation against the freedom of discussion indulged in the British newspapers relative to the affairs of France—a conduct at which he always evinced great displeasure.

In the interior parts of France, the most active preparations for war continued to be made; and at the sea-ports the different commanders received orders to put the navy as fast as possible on a respectable footing. These preparations, though made under the idea of sending reinforcements to St. Domingo, were viewed with great suspicion by the British ministry; and a long and tedious correspondence was carried on between Lord Whitworth, the English minister at Paris, and M. de Talleyrand, relative thereto, which was brought to a conclusion in the month of May 1803, by the refusal of France to suffer the British to retain Malta for ten years, and withdraw her troops from Switzerland and Holland. It had also been discovered, that the officers who had been sent from France to reside in the principal sea-ports of the United Kingdom, under the character of French commercial agents, were, in reality, little better than spies, as they had been detected in sounding the harbours, and drawing plans of the ports; a glaring proof that some desperate blow was meditated against this country. These and other circumstances, equally demonstrative of the views of Bonaparte, produced an open rupture; and hostilities actually commenced on the 16th of May.

The firm tone and decisive conduct of the British government evidently irritated the first consul exceedingly, whose first measure (contrary to all the laws of nations) was to seize all the British subjects at that time in France, and detain them. This event was speedily followed by the march of a French army towards Hanover. Osnaburg was taken on the 28th of May; and soon afterwards the whole electorate surrendered by capitulation. By this convention the Hanoverian troops were bound not to take up arms against France during the continuance of the war; and sums were to be raised for the maintenance of the French army, while private property was to be held sacred. But no sooner were the French troops in full possession of the country, than they committed the most flagrant acts of cruelty and injustice that were ever perpetrated by people professing to be civilized.

It had always been a favourite object with Bonaparte to do as much injury as possible to the commerce of Great Britain; and he now determined to shut against this country the ports of the Elbe and the Weser, and also insisted upon the ports of Denmark being shut against us, proposing to place a French garrison in the island of Zealand. This for the present was rejected on the part of Denmark; and the English ministry ordered that the rivers of the Elbe and Weser should be strictly blockaded.

About this time the French army in St. Domingo was in a most deplorable condition, as appeared from the intercepted letters from General Rochambeau to the government; and soon afterwards the malcontents, assisted by the English, drove the French entirely out of the island.

It was the opinion of the discerning part of mankind, that Bonaparte would not long be satisfied with the title of first consul; for, although he could receive no addition to his power and influence, yet there was reason to believe that the sound of such titles as have been always deemed higher and more dignified would be too fascinating for him to resist. Accordingly on the 24th of May 1804, it was decreed in the tribunate, "That Napoleon Bonaparte, the first consul, be proclaimed Emperor of the French, and in that capacity be invested with the government of the republic; and that the title of Emperor be made hereditary in his family in the male line, according to the order of primogeniture." The conservative senate addressed the first consul, and apparently took great pains to convince him that the safety of France and the happiness of Europe depended upon his acceptance of this honour; and the different divisions of the army hoped that he would be graciously pleased to *condescend* (what an instance of humility!) to become emperor of France.

This honour he was so *humble* as to accept, and on the occasion delivered a most studied address to the senate.

A short time previous to this event, several eminent persons had been arrested at Paris, charged with conspiring against the life and government of Bonaparte. The astonishment of all ranks was greatly excited to find the justly celebrated generals Moreau and Pichegru among the number. The former gallant officer was sentenced to two years imprisonment; but this punishment was afterwards commuted to banishment for life to the United States of North America, where he at present resides greatly respected. The latter, after his arrest, was confined in the Temple, where, on the morning of the 5th of April, he was found strangled in his bed, by means of a black silk handkerchief twisted tight round his neck and fastened with a short stick. The body was examined and exposed, and a studied account published, to make it appear that he had laid violent hands on himself: but all the circumstances warrant a different conclusion, and prove that he was assassinated. Georges, another of the conspirators, who had formerly been at the head of the royalists in La Vendée, together with eleven of his associates, were condemned and executed on the 25th of June; and about eighteen were acquitted.

The coronation of Bonaparte took place on the 15th of December, and was accompanied, on the part of the people, with such apparent signs of satisfaction, as evinced the degraded state of the public mind. On February 4, 1805, he addressed a letter to his Britannic majesty on the subject of peace; in which he requested that sovereign "not to deny himself the inexpressible pleasure of giving peace to the world;" and intimating, "that, should the present moment be lost, he did not see how all his efforts could terminate the war, which he considered as without any object or presumable result." However plausible these observations appeared, they were received by the British government with great caution; for they suspected that it was either merely a political effort of the new emperor to gain popularity, and throw the odium of the war upon his enemies, or else a measure which, if rejected on the part of England, would afford him a plea for fresh usurpation. A very short time proved that these suspicions were well founded; for the imperial usurper, not yet satisfied with the honours already given him, overturned the recently formed Italian republic, and erected it into a kingdom, of which he caused himself to be crowned king at Milan, on the 24th of April, in this year. Soon after this, without the least notice, he entered the neutral territory of the republic of Genoa, and overturned

overturned the government, without assigning any other reason than that this republic was too weak to defend itself against the naval power of England.

These and other acts of equally unprincipled usurpation at length began to open the eyes of the different powers on the continent, who now perceived that the ambition and thirst of power in the French emperor were insatiable, and that there were no ties of honour or of public faith that could restrain him from effecting the purposes of his lawless usurpations. The young emperor Alexander of Russia was particularly incensed at these outrages, and immediately recalled his ambassador from Paris, and entered into a firm alliance with Great Britain and Austria against France. Bonaparte immediately set about the most vigorous measures for offensive operations. He left Paris on the 24th of September to join the grand army, and reached Strasburg on the 26th, accompanied by the empress. The army which had for a length of time been forming on the coast, for the ostensible purpose of invading England, it was now perceived, was collected together and strictly disciplined solely for the purpose of being ready to take the field at a moment's notice, before the enemy could be equally prepared. Accordingly this powerful force rushed like a torrent to the frontiers, reached the banks of the Rhine on the 20th of September, and crossed that river on the 25th. On the 1st of October they were followed by the emperor, who crossed the river at Kehl, having first issued a manifesto to his army, mentioning the commencement of the war of what he termed *the third coalition*, which, he said, was created and maintained by the gold and hatred of England. In the mean time the army under Bernadotte, consisting of about 40,000 men, moved with such rapidity as seems to have entirely discomfited the Austrian general Mack, who took no measures to oppose its progress.

Hostilities commenced on the 7th, when the Austrians were defeated in attempting to oppose the passage of the French army at the bridge of Donawert. Another Austrian column, while on its march to Ulm, the Austrian head-quarters, was suddenly surrounded and disarmed. Considerable reinforcements arriving under the command of Marshals Ney and Soult, the latter general marched through the neutral territory of Anspach, which belonged to Prussia, towards Biberach, in order to cut off the retreat of the Austrians by that quarter; while Ney crossed the Danube, and made an attack upon Echlingen, a little above Ulm. The Austrians made a *sortie*, but were driven back to their entrenchments before Ulm with great loss. In this city

General Mack was obliged to shut himself up, but surrendered by capitulation on the 17th. To this unaccountable step, he afterwards said, he was induced, because Berthier assured him that the Austrians were driven behind the Inn, that Marshal Lasnes was in pursuit of the Archduke Ferdinand, that General Werneck had capitulated, and that it was impossible for any succours to reach him in that place, where he was pressed for provisions. That division of the Austrian army under Prince Ferdinand was closely pursued by Murat, with a large body of horse, who brought them to action on the 15th, and again on the 17th, when General Werneck surrendered the whole of his division prisoners of war. The remainder of the Austrian army was most vigorously pursued from Albeck to Nuremberg, and at length entirely defeated and dispersed; the archduke, and only a few of his followers, making their escape.

Every division of the French army had crossed the river Inn, in the direct road to Vienna, on the 1st of November. The emperor was with the right wing at Saitzburg; and the centre, commanded by prince Murat, rushed on Lintz with great rapidity. The Austro-Russian army retreated to Maelk, 50 miles from Vienna, on their approach, and the French entered that capital on the 12th of October, where they conducted themselves with the greatest propriety, which prevented any disturbance from taking place. After a few days repose, the grand army pursued its march with irresistible rapidity in quest of the Austro-Russian army, which retreated before it, in hopes of drawing the French to a great distance from their frontiers, in which case a defeat would to them prove truly disadvantageous.

After a great number of military evolutions, Bonaparte, at length, succeeded in gaining possession of nearly the whole of the enemy's provisions, which compelled them to risk a general engagement. In this situation of affairs, Bonaparte, perceiving the dreadful carnage which would be inevitable from the conflict of two such prodigious armies, was extremely anxious to spare the effusion of human blood; and for this purpose he proposed an armistice, which was rejected with disdain. At sun-rise, on the 27th of November, the sanguinary battle of Austerlitz commenced with a tremendous cannonade along the whole line. It is almost needless to remark, that 200 pieces of cannon and 200,000 men made a most tremendous noise. In less than one hour the whole left wing of the allied army was cut off, and their right forced back upon Austerlitz, the head-quarters of the Austro-Russian army, from the heights of which the two emperors of Germany

Germany and Russia witnessed the total defeat of their army. The loss sustained by the allies, during the whole of this battle, amounted, according to the French bulletins, to 35,000 men, killed on the field or taken prisoners, independent of 20,000 who were drowned, 150 pieces of cannon, and 45 stand of colours. This account is declared to have been greatly exaggerated, by the court of St. Petersburg, who made their whole loss not to exceed 18,000 Russians, and that of the Austrians at 5000. Which of these contradictory reports is entitled to credit we know not; but we think, that while the one may be greatly exaggerated, the other is as greatly diminished. The French acknowledge to have lost upwards of 10,000 men. The consequences of this victory were fatal to the allies; and on the 5th of December an interview took place between the three emperors which lasted upwards of two hours, and an armistice was agreed to, which was to serve as the basis of a definitive treaty. The Russian emperor was to march home the remains of his army, in such a manner as Bonaparte should prescribe; and the French were to evacuate Brunn on the 4th of January, Vienna on the 10th, and the whole Austrian territory in six weeks after signing the treaty. After some discussion, the treaty was, at length, signed at Presburg, on the 26th of December, by which several important changes took place in Europe: Venice was ceded by Austria to the new Italian kingdom; and the emperor of Germany agreed to relinquish all his power over the circles of Bavaria, Franconia, and Suabia, which Bonaparte formed into the kingdoms of Bavaria, Wirtemberg, and Baden, and they entered into a confederation, of which he placed himself at the head.

While these events were succeeding each other in rapid succession on the continent, the navy of France and Spain received a most terrible blow by the defeat off Cape Trafalgar, of which we have already presented the particulars in our epitome of the history of England; and the subsequent annihilation of a French squadron in the bay of St. Domingo, on the 6th of February, 1806, so entirely destroyed the navy of this empire, that since that event they have attempted nothing of consequence on the sea, but have been labouring with all their strength to recruit their naval force.

It would have required the invincible modesty of a Washington, not to be elated with the extraordinary success that attended the arms of Bonaparte in the late contests with Austria and Russia, a qualification which he seems never to have possessed. After the battle of Austerlitz, his conduct was marked with injustice, tyranny,

and rapine, both as it respected Hanover and the king of Naples, the latter of whom had joined the confederacy against France, but, on the defeat of the allies, was obliged to take refuge in Sicily; and Bonaparte's brother, Joseph, was placed on the throne of Naples, of which he was crowned king May 10, 1805.

The intriguing and mysterious king of Prussia, on whose co-operation the allies had certainly some reason to calculate, does not appear to have ever been sincere in his professions of attachment to the interests of Britain: he could drain her coffers, without granting her that effectual assistance which he scrupled not to promise, but never intended to confer. A very short time, however, convinced this monarch, that the friendship of the self-elected French emperor was no protection against his unbounded ambition; who now began indirectly to attribute the recent conduct of the Prussian monarch to pusillanimity rather than attachment, and in an authoritative tone required an acknowledgment on the part of Prussia of all the newly-created kings of the Rhenish confederation, and of the more recent king of Holland. To these requirements the young Prussian monarch by no means tacitly submitted: at this period he was possessed of one of the finest armies in Europe, upwards of 200,000 strong; and the refusal of the Russian emperor Alexander to ratify the definitive treaty, which had been signed by his envoy, Count d'Obriel, at Paris (as already mentioned in our outline of Russian history), produced ultimately another coalition of Prussia and Russia against France. Previous to the commencement of hostilities, his Prussian majesty issued a spirited manifesto, in which he explained his motives for abandoning his plan of neutrality, and appealed to Europe for the justice of his cause; immediately after which a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, was entered into between the courts of Berlin, St. Petersburg, and Stockholm, the mutual co-operation of which it was expected would at length hurl the tyrant of Europe from his throne, or, at least, compel him to listen to equitable terms of pacification. These expectations, however, were miserably disappointed; the same extraordinary success still attended the arms of France, and the north of Europe was again condemned to submit in silence to its yoke.

No sooner did it appear that hostilities were unavoidable, than Napoleon, with his usual rapidity, poured his almost innumerable hosts into Germany; and, to the astonishment of the allies, in the course of an almost incredibly short space of time, was prepared to carry on the war, as is his usual custom, in the heart of the enemy's territories.

territories. On the 13th of October the two armies came in sight of each other, near Jena, a small city in Upper Saxony, when one of the most sanguinary battles commenced that is recorded in modern history. Every thing that valour could effect was unavailing on the part of the Prussians, who were totally defeated, with the loss of their general, the duke of Brunswick, and 20,000 men. The result of this victory on the part of the French, was their entrance into Berlin on the 27th, and the almost total dispersion of the enemy's army. One of the divisions, however, under General Blucher, made good its retreat, though opposed by very superior numbers, to Lubeck, where, after performing prodigies of valour, it was at length forced to surrender at discretion. While the French were thus successful against Prussia, the troops of Russia entered Poland, and took possession of Warsaw, where they awaited the arrival of the French, who, headed by Napoleon in person, notwithstanding the near approach of winter, were rushing, with their usual impetuosity, to put a speedy end to the campaign. On the 26th of November the outposts of the respective armies fell in with each other, and a skirmish ensued, which terminated in favour of the French, and a regiment of cossacks were made prisoners. On the 28th, Prince Murat entered Warsaw with his cavalry, and the Russians retreated across the Vistula, burning the bridge over which they had passed. On the 26th of December a dreadful engagement took place between the two armies. The Russians were commanded by General Benningsen, and the French by Murat, Davoust, and Lasnes. The scene of action was at Ostralenka, about 60 miles from Warsaw; and the fighting continued three days: the loss was immense on both sides, though the advantage appears to have been in favour of the French. During the succeeding month of January 1807, the ground was covered with a deep snow, and nothing particular was undertaken on either side; but, in the beginning of February, the Russians obtained a partial advantage in the battle of Eylau: the fighting continued four days successively; but on the 7th of February, at three o'clock in the afternoon, the action became general through the whole line of the main army: the contest was destructive, and the night came on before it could be decided. Early on the following morning the French renewed the attack, and the action was contested with great obstinacy on both sides; but towards the evening of that day, the assailants were repulsed, and the Russian general remained master of the field. In this affair Bonaparte commanded in person;

and the loss on each side was estimated to exceed 10,000 men.

This was the last important stand made by the Russian army. Several actions succeeded at Spanden and other places, in all of which the French claimed the advantage, till at length, on the 14th of June, the Russians appeared in considerable force on the bridge of Friedland, whither the French army, under Napoleon, was advancing. At three o'clock, A.M. the report of cannon was first heard, and the battle commenced, in which the Russians, after performing several manœuvres, received a check, and filed off towards Königsberg; but in the afternoon they were again brought to action; and both sides perceiving a general battle inevitable, drew up in order of battle. The French had Marshal Ney on the right, Lasnes in the centre, and Mortier on the left, while Victor commanded a *corps de reserve*, consisting of the imperial guards. At half past five the attack began under Marshal Ney; and notwithstanding the different evolutions of the Russians to effect a diversion, the French soon carried all before them, and ultimately obtained a most complete victory, as has already been mentioned in our history of Russia. The consequences of this defeat were fatal to the allies: soon afterwards an armistice was agreed upon between the contending armies; and the Russian emperor found himself constrained to meet, at least with the appearance of friendship, the conqueror of his armies. The interview took place in a boat on the river Niemen; and adjoining apartments were fitted up for the reception of both courts in the town of Tilsit. This constrained friendship was soon afterwards cemented by the treaty which bears the name of the place where it was concluded, which happened on the 7th and 12th of July in this year. By this agreement the king of Prussia was deprived of all his acquisitions in Poland, which were formed into the Grand Duchy of Warsaw. His dominions in Westphalia and Lower Saxony, together with a great portion of several secularized bishoprics, and the late electorate of Hanover, were formed into a kingdom, of which Jerome, the youngest brother of Napoleon, was declared king on the 1st of December.

While these events were occurring on the continent, the busy mind of the French emperor was directed towards the only European power that has been enabled to withstand his power. While prosecuting his victorious career in the north of Germany, he publicly avowed that his object was not extent of territory; this was only a secondary consideration: he wanted ships, colonies, and commerce; and, as the destruction of his navy

by the battles of Trafalgar, &c. had convinced him that it was impossible to gain the sovereignty of the ocean, he vented his spleen by issuing decrees against the commerce of Britain, and vauntingly declared England in a state of blockade!!!

No sooner had the demon of discord ceased to rage in the north of Germany and Poland, than the restless spirit of the French usurper (conscious that he owed not only his present elevated station to the army, but that his future existence depended on its support) began to unfold his designs relative to Spain; and Prince Marat (now grand duke of Berg) was sent with a powerful force into that country, in order to assist his ally, the unfortunate Charles IV. who, he asserted, had been compelled to resign his crown against his inclination to his son, the prince of Asturias. However plausible this might appear, yet it is more than probable, that at first he entered upon this project in order to employ his vast army, which it would have been dangerous to suffer to remain inactive or unemployed, and equally so to have disbanded. If his views went no further than this at his first entering upon this warfare, the distracted state of that unfortunate country prompted him ultimately to follow up his ambitious designs of universal power, to overturn the government and subdue the country: but in this he has hitherto been unsuccessful; and we must refer the reader to our epitome of Spanish history for the particulars of the noble struggle which the patriots of Spain have made against his usurpations.

In the mean time, the conduct of Bonaparte towards the other powers on the continent, was marked by the most violent usurpation and oppression. The court of Vienna, for a considerable time, put up with his assuming conduct, which affected to treat the powers of Europe merely as conquered provinces, till, at length, roused by his overbearing conduct, the house of Austria resolved to make one more effort to assert its independence, and rescue Europe from its scourge. The Archduke Charles, who on several former occasions had distinguished himself as a great commander, was at the head of the army; and he, with the advice of the military council, proposed to carry on the war in the country of the enemy. Agreeably to this resolution, in the spring of 1809, after a declaration of hostilities, the Austrian army advanced, and took possession of Munich (the capital of the kingdom of Bavaria), Ratisbon, and other places. The inhabitants of the Tyrol, who, by the treaty of Presburg, in 1805, were made subject to the king of Bavaria, now almost unanimously declared themselves in favour of the house of Austria, to which, for several centuries, they had

been subject. They drove the Bavarian troops from the whole of their territories, and for some time bravely defended themselves against a very superior force. It is not to be supposed that the French government continued a moment a calm spectator of these events: no sooner was the emperor and king aware that one of the princes of the Rhenish confederacy was driven from his capital, than he immediately set out at the head of a powerful army to repel the invaders, and protect his allies. On the 10th of April he set out from Paris, crossed the Rhine on the 15th, and arrived on the evening of the 16th at Dillingen, where he had an interview with the king of Bavaria; and promised, in fifteen days, to restore him his capital. On the 19th, at day-break, the two grand armies came in sight of each other; and a smart action commenced, which terminated in favour of the French. On the 20th, the Austrians were again defeated in the battle of Abensberg; and on the 21st, after an obstinate contest, Landshut was taken by storm. On the 22d, the whole of the Austrian lines were attacked and put to the route; but they were bravely defended by their cavalry, who nobly covered their retreat: and on the 23d, the horse made a spirited stand before Ratisbon, which however, ultimately, they were unable to protect, having been vigorously attacked by a greatly superior number of the enemy's cavalry. Ratisbon was taken by assault, and all who resisted were put to the sword. During all this continued fighting the Austrians disputed the ground inch by inch, as it were; and if their bulletins are to be credited, obtained several advantages; but, notwithstanding all their efforts, the French continued to advance, compelling their opponents to fall back, till at length, on the 10th of May, early in the morning, the French troops appeared before Vienna, which had been relinquished by the grand Austrian army, the Archduke Charles having sought a strong position for the defence of Hungary, where he meant to make a stand. The capital was immediately summoned to surrender, but this was refused with disdain; and the populace fell upon the aid-de-camp, who was the bearer of the proposition, and wounded him. The suburbs of Vienna are incapable of making any defence: they are divided into eight quarters, and separated from the city by a vast esplanade. Of the 300,000 souls comprising the population of Vienna, 220,000 live in the suburbs, while only 80,000 inhabit the city. On the approach of the French army, a very great proportion of the inhabitants sought for refuge in the city, which was crowded to excess, and from the ramparts of which the garrison opened a vigorous cannonade upon the enemy, who had taken possession of the

the suburbs. Another message was then sent from Napoleon, requiring an immediate surrender, which being refused, it was then bombarded and set on fire in several places. One must have seen Vienna, its houses of eight or nine stories, its narrow streets and over-crowded population, within so narrow a compass, in order to form an idea of the tumult, horror, and disorder, which such an operation could not but occasion. In the evening two French troops of Voltigeurs having swam across the Danube, and collected materials for the erecting of a bridge of boats, the Archduke Maximilian, the governor of the city, retreated, and a negotiation was entered into for the surrender of the city. The capitulation was signed on the 12th in the evening; and on the 13th, the French emperor took possession of Vienna, where he gave his troops a few days' repose.

While these events were passing in Germany, the campaign opened favourably on the side of the Austrians in Italy; but their success was but of short continuance, for on the 8th of May, they were repulsed by the French with considerable loss, and the Austrians retreated. In the Tyrol, the inhabitants rose in a mass against the French and Bavarians, and drove them out of their country; but the Bavarian army now began to advance against them. In the north of Germany, the spirit of insurrection likewise began to manifest itself, and at length broke out into open hostility. Baron Von Schill placed himself at the head of a body of malcontents, and forced the troops of the king of Westphalia to relinquish Lunenburg and several other places; and his forces increased every day.

In the mean time the Archduke Charles, who had retreated into Bohemia and Hungary, suddenly advanced on the left banks of the Danube, in order to prevent the French troops from crossing that river. The emperor Napoleon left Vienna on the 19th; and a bridge of boats was thrown across the Danube at Ebersdorf, about six miles below that city. Near this place the river is divided into two channels by the island of Lobau: that on the right bank is of considerable width, while the other is comparatively narrow. It was on this spot that the French emperor determined to attempt the passage of the river. On the 19th, Napoleon, with the greater part of his troops, passed the larger arm of the Danube; and, on the evening of the 20th, he took a position, with his advanced guard, on the left bank. The Archduke Charles being apprised of his intentions, determined on attacking him before his whole army was passed over; and at noon on the 21st, advanced forward to attack the French. The emperor Na-

poleon in person directed the movements of his troops; and at three o'clock the battle commenced, when Bonaparte, at the head of the cavalry, endeavoured to break through the Austrian centre. This vast body of horse he had supported by upwards of 60,000 foot, and 100 pieces of cannon; but, notwithstanding all his efforts, he was unable to penetrate the compact mass which the Austrian battalions presented. It was a gigantic combat, and is scarcely capable of description. The battle with the infantry became almost immediately general; and more than 200 pieces of cannon exhibited a rivalry in the work of destruction. The village of Asperne was ten times taken and re-taken, and at length remained in the possession of the Austrians, who, at eleven at night, remained masters of the field of battle. The French, during the darkness of the night, took up a position in a corner, with the Danube and the Isle of Lobau in their rear. Meanwhile the floats of heavy pieces of timber, which had been cut down in the vicinity of Vienna, drifted with great impetuosity against the bridge which the French had constructed, and carried away the bridge which united the right bank of the Danube with the Isle of Lobau, and entirely cut off all communication between the advanced and rear guards of the French army. Aware of this disaster, Napoleon, during the night, conveyed over, by continued embarkations, as many of the disposable troops which he had in Vienna and on the other side, for which he could procure a passage, and, at four o'clock in the morning, furiously attacked the enemy, who as warmly returned the charge. Words are wanting to describe the horrid scene which now ensued: until seven in the evening the battle raged with unabated fury, till, at length, the French were obliged to relinquish the attack, and retire to the position which they had primarily taken up on crossing the river, leaving the Austrians masters of the field of battle. The loss on both sides in this sanguinary conflict was immense. Six thousand wounded Frenchmen fell into the hands of the Austrians; and the French boast a great number of prisoners, and unhesitatingly claim the victory: they admit their being unable to advance, which they attributed to the destruction of their bridge by excessive floods. On the 23d and following day, the Austrians employed themselves in burying their dead, and the French in repairing the bridge, which was rebuilt on the 25th, when their wounded and prisoners were removed to the right bank of the river.

The two grand armies, as if weary of contending, restrained, in some measure, from offensive operations for a considerable time, the French being busily engaged in the construction of bridges.

bridges and other works for repassing the Danube, and the Austrians in erecting fortifications and other works to prevent their advancement. On the 30th of June, the French works were completed; and, considering the short space of time in which they were constructed, were amazing and stupendous. During the whole period since their repulse at Asperne on the 21st and 22d of May, the French continued in the possession of a small spot on the left bank of the Danube, which they defended by *têtes de pont* of 1600 fathoms in extent, formed of redoubts surrounded by pallisades, frizes, and ditches filled with water. To this point, from the right bank of the river, a bridge of sixty arches extended, on which three carriages could pass abreast: a second bridge was built upon piles, eight feet broad, for the infantry only. Next to these was a bridge of boats, all of which were defended from the attack, even of fire-ships, by stuccadoes raised on piles between the islands. On the morning of the 1st of July, Bonaparte removed his head-quarters from the right bank to the Isle of Lobau, and from thence, on the 2d, to the entrenchments on the left bank. The Austrians were strongly fortified; notwithstanding which, Bonaparte ventured upon the attack, and, by a skilful manœuvre, succeeded in drawing the attention of the Austrians to a point remote from that where, in fact, he intended to commence his operations. The Austrians, completely deceived, were thus drawn away from the protection which their works had been calculated to afford, and were actually compelled to fight upon ground chosen by the enemy. This was a material advantage gained by the French. The Austrians appear to have been astonished by the unexpected movements which were made by the French during the night of the 4th, and the morning of the 5th; but they recovered, endeavoured to turn their position to the best account; and, though there was much hard fighting, it does not appear that the French obtained any signal advantage on the 5th.

On the 6th, they were more successful; and, in consequence of the Archduke Charles having weakened his centre by extending his flanks, they were ultimately victorious. The Austrians retreated towards Bohemia, on the high road to Prague, and were closely pursued by the French. On the 10th, a smart action took place between the advanced guard of the French and the rear of the Austrians, which terminated in favour of the former; and on the 11th, a general engagement took place at Znaim, during the heat of which prince John of Lichtenstein repaired to the head-quarters of the French emperor to propose an armistice, which, after a great deal of

altercation, was at length agreed to, and hostilities ceased between the two empires.

The late victory of the French on the Danube produced a manifest change in the minds of the people on the continent; many distinguished personages, who were well disposed to the cause in which the house of Austria was engaged, only awaited a favourable opportunity to throw off the mask, and boldly enter the lists against the despoiler of Europe: but the recent disasters cooled their ardour, and they were obliged to submit tacitly to their unhappy situation. The cessation from hostilities included not only the grand contending armies, but the whole forces of both empires; and the line of demarcation was specifically pointed out for the position of all the armies, till the terms of a general peace could be settled and agreed to; which event took place at Vienna, on the 14th of October, by which the Austrian empire was obliged to make a sacrifice of a considerable extent of territory. Nearly the whole of the archbishopric of Salzburg was secularized and annexed to Bavaria; the territory of Trieste, Fiume, and the Austrian possessions on the eastern side of the Adriatic, were possessed by the French; a considerable portion of eastern Gallicia was ceded to Russia, and part of western Gallicia was annexed to the duchy of Warsaw.

The emperor Alexander of Russia, who, since 1807, had continued in close alliance with France, was now, in a manner, compelled openly to espouse either one side or the other. Recent experience had taught him to dread the enmity of France; and he now declared in favour of that country: but his movements were extremely tardy, and evidently delayed, in order to take advantage of any fortunate circumstance that might humble his *forced* friend and ally. A considerable army advanced on the confines of Austrian Poland, and commenced some shew of offensive operations; but the battle of Wagram decided his future conduct, and he was preparing to enter heartily into the cause, when the peace of Vienna put an end to hostilities, and he was rewarded for his services with a *slice* of Gallicia.

In the mean time, the insurrection in the north of Germany (after the death of Colonel Schill, who was killed while bravely defending Stralsund, where he was pursued by the Dutch troops on the 31st of May) acquired a considerable degree of stability, being headed by the young duke of Brunswick, the nephew of his Britannic majesty; but the failure of the British expedition to the Scheldt (of which an account was given in our epitome of English history), together with the recent disasters of the house of Austria, precluded the hopes of further success, and

and ultimately reduced this unfortunate nobleman to seek for refuge, with about 400 of his followers, on board a British squadron, which conveyed him to England. The only opponents which now remained to the French in the eastern part of Europe were the Tyrolese, who, with the most exalted patriotism, determined rather to suffer every privation than become subject to the king of Bavaria. During the autumn of 1809 and the following winter, they nobly resisted every effort to subdue them, till, at length, they were overpowered by the number of their opponents, in June 1810, and their leaders taken and executed.

Soon after the return of the French emperor to Paris from his victorious career in Germany, it was whispered abroad, that he was about to apply to the pope for a dispensation to repudiate the empress Josephine, and marry some princess of such an age that in all probability she might bear him an heir of his own body to the imperial crown. On the 15th of December, the emperor Napoleon and the empress Josephine mutually dissolved their marriage at the palace of the Thuilleries; and, for a considerable length of time, all Europe was at a loss to conjecture as to the person upon whom he might fix his choice. It was asserted that the heiress of the house of Saxony was to ascend the imperial throne; and afterwards that a princess of the Russian royal family had been selected: but what was the astonishment of all Europe when it was announced that he had chosen a princess of the house of Austria for his future consort. This important determination was first divulged at a splendid *fête* given at the Thuilleries, to which the Austrian ambassador was invited, and treated with the greatest respect; and it was announced that the object of the prince of Neuchâtel's journey to Vienna was to solicit the hand of Maria Louisa, the emperor's eldest daughter, in

marriage. This alliance, however repugnant to the feelings of the house of Austria, was at length conceded to; and it was consummated with great pomp at Paris, the 1st of April, 1810: since that period a good understanding has subsisted between the two empires, which has given a quite different complexion to the affairs of the continent.

While these events were passing on the continent, the French emperor continued, on every occasion, to vent his rage against England, to whose gold and influence he attributed the recent struggle in Germany. Aware of his naval inferiority, he endeavoured still more strenuously than heretofore to ruin the commerce of Britain. He issued several decrees, ordering the immediate seizure and confiscation of all sorts of British merchandise, and that not only in the French empire, but in every country in Europe where he had the least sway. But notwithstanding all his efforts, the Dutch, whose commercial spirit has for centuries been remarkable, still continued to import British and colonial produce. This was extremely irritating to a character like that of Bonaparte, who remonstrated with his brother, the mild Louis, king of Holland, for not more rigorously executing his decrees. This produced a misunderstanding between the two brothers, which continued to increase, till, at length, Louis, after publishing a feeling address to the Dutch, in which he commiserated their misfortunes, which, he says, he had in vain attempted to alleviate, voluntarily abdicated the throne, and retired to his brother Jerome, at Lussel, on the 3d of July. Immediately after this, the French emperor issued a decree, by which Holland was declared to be united to France. The duke of Placentia was nominated viceroy till the 1st of January 1811, when the present form of government will cease, and Holland will form an integral part of the French empire*.

* According to the most recent accounts, it has been decreed that the late kingdom of Holland shall send six senators to Paris, six deputies to the council of state, twenty-five deputies to the legislative body, and two judges to the court of cassation. The officers by sea and land are to retain their employments, as are also the public functionaries. The divisions of the country have also undergone a material change since our commencement of this country; and they will in future consist of the following departments:

Departments.	Chief Towns.
1. Zuyder-zee	Amsterdam
2. Mouths of the Maese	Hague
3. Mouths of the Scheldt	Middleburgh.
4. Mouths of the Rhine	Herzogenbusch
5. Overysse	Arnhem
6. Mouths of the Yssel	Zwoller
7. Friesland	Leuwarden
8. West Eems	Groningen
9. East Eems	Amich

The department of the Zuyder-zee consists of the old departments of Amsterdam and Utrecht. The department of the Mouths of the Scheldt (Zeeland) remains as it was organized before. The department of the Mouths of the Rhine (Dutch Brabant) remains as before, except that it has united to it the *arrondissement* of Breda. Overysse is the old department of Gueld. West Eems includes the late departments of Groningen and Drenthe; and the East Eems includes East Friesland, with Jeyer. It is said, that on the 1st of January, 1811, a general governor will be appointed for the late kingdom of Holland: the person who will receive this dignity is even named; viz. a prince of the imperial family.

In our outline of Swedish history we have already noticed the deposition of the unfortunate Gustavus Adolphus, and the election, by the new constitution of the country, of the duke of Suder-
manland to the throne of that country in April 1809, when the prince of Anstenburg (a German nobleman) was elected crown-prince of Sweden, and his successor. The latter unfortunate nobleman, while reviewing the troops, in the latter end of May 1810, suddenly fell from his horse, and expired; which immediately caused a ferment throughout the country. At Stockholm in particular, the people rose into open rebellion, declaring that he had been poisoned. They seized the person of Count Fersen, the king's minister, and actually tore him to pieces; and it was only by the calling in of the military that order was restored. The death of the crown-prince made it absolutely necessary to assemble the diet of the kingdom, to elect a successor to the throne. The members of the diet assembled at Orebro, on the 28th of July, when several candidates offered themselves to succeed the reigning monarch: but what was the astonishment of all Europe when, on the 18th of August, his majesty proposed, after a speech of some length, "that the prince of Ponte Corvo (the French general, Bernadotte) was a proper person to be chosen crown-prince of Sweden." This was received with general approbation: after an hour's deliberation, the diet confirmed the nomination; and a messenger was immediately directed to proceed to Paris to communicate their decision. By this act Sweden may be considered merely as a province of France; and the reader will be at no loss to find out the cause of the re-

cent disturbances in the kingdom of Sweden, which are solely to be attributed to French influence and intrigue.

During the present contest, France has lost nearly all her colonies abroad. Her West India islands are now in the hands of the English, as are also the Isles of Bourbon, &c. in the East India Ocean. The want of colonial produce, and the reduced state of the French finances, occasioned in a great measure by the unexpected resistance of the people of Spain, have obliged Napoleon to relax in the rigour of his decrees respecting commerce; but this he has contrived with his usual policy: for, aware of the utter impossibility of entirely preventing the introduction of colonial produce into Europe, he has ventured upon a bold project; and, taking possession of all the ports of the continent over which he could attain any influence, he has prohibited at those places the introduction of British manufactures and produce; at the same time, with a Machiavelian policy, he has declared that six ports of the Channel, and the Bay of Biscay, are open for trade. By this measure he obviously designs to raise the commerce of France upon the ruins of the conquered provinces, thereby constituting that country a depôt for the commerce of the continent; but while Britain retains the sovereignty of the seas, his projects will be counteracted.

Bonaparte has trifled with the United States of America, till, at length, their ambassador has quitted France, and is now on his way home, so that war between the two countries is expected; and the blessings of peace seem still at a distance from a bleeding world.

James Mungell
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WENTWORTH

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Friday 3^d of April, 1818.

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